



HER MAJESTY VICTORIA, QUEEN OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT
BRITAIN AND IRELAND, EMPRESS OF INDIA.

[Photo. Russell.]

THE VICTORIAN ERA

BY

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WITH SEVENTY-FIVE ILLUSTRATIONS AND TWO MAPS



WITH A NEW CHAPTER ON THE DEATH OF QUEEN VICTORIA

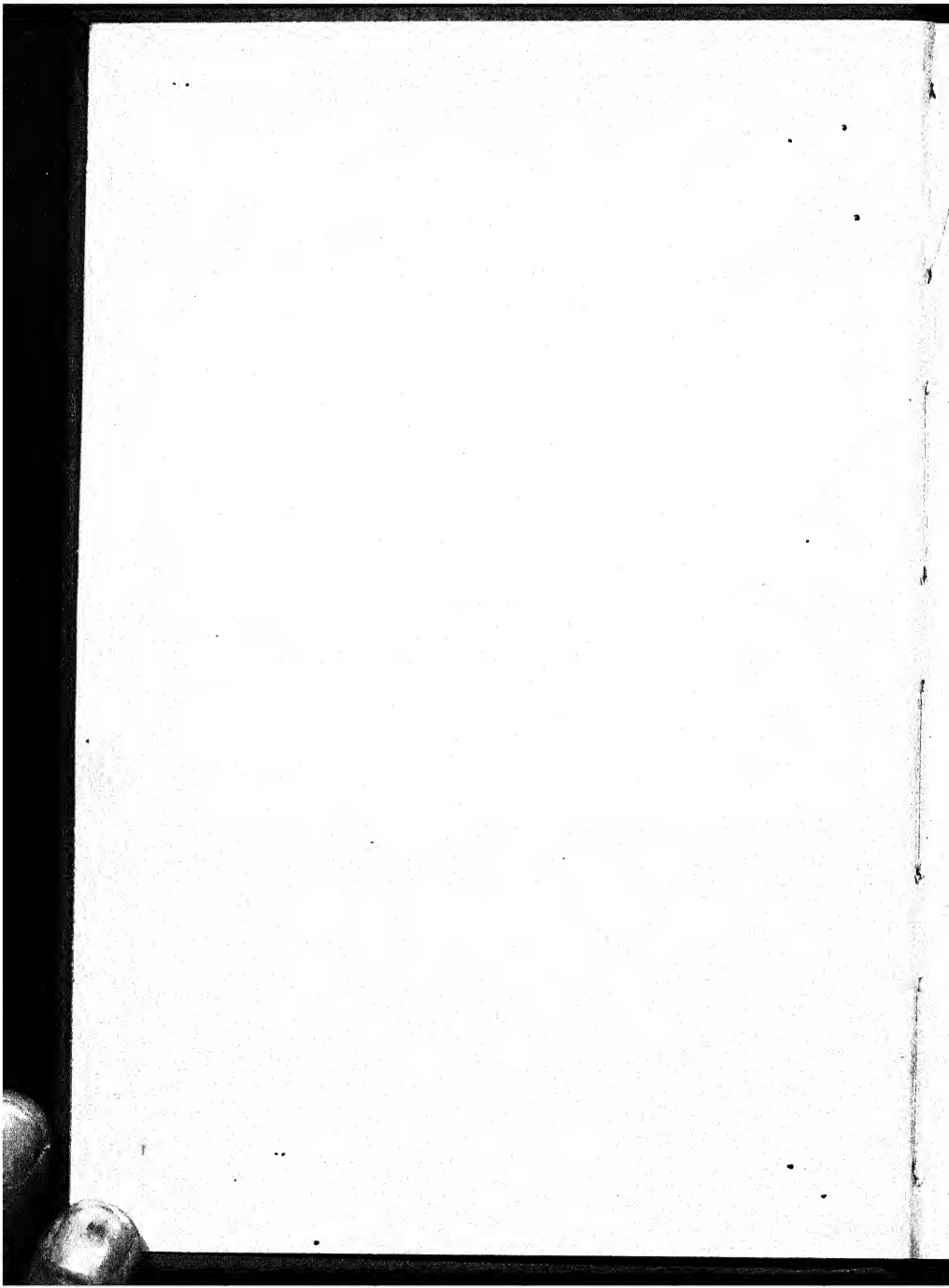
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THE VICTORIAN ERA.

CHAPTER I.

THE QUEEN'S EARLY LIFE.

QUEEN VICTORIA was born in Kensington Palace, on the 24th of May, 1819, just four years after the battle of Waterloo. At that time George III. was still alive, but a feeble old man of fourscore, who died in the following year. The Prince Regent came to the baby's christening, and was one of her godfathers, the other being Alexander, Czar of Russia. It was a very stately ceremony, and the child was named Alexandrina Victoria, after the Czar and her mother.

How she became heir to the throne was as follows:¹ "Farmer George" had twelve children, of whom her father, Edward, Duke of Kent, was the fourth. George IV. was the eldest, but he had only one daughter, who, after marrying Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, died, leaving no children. Frederick, who came next to George, was dead, so that the Crown devolved on the third son, William IV. But William had only two children, both girls, and they died in childhood, so that the succession passed to the fourth son, Queen Victoria's father, Edward, Duke of Kent.

His fate was a sad one. At the age of fifty he had married the Princess Leiningen, and his joy was very

¹ See Genealogical Table on p. 234.

great over the birth of his daughter. But anxiety for the baby's welfare proved the cause of his own death.

Fancying that winter in London might be too severe for her, he took the mother and child to a house in Devonshire—Walbrook Cottage, near Sidmouth—thinking thus to escape the worst of the cold weather. For a time all went well, and he wrote to a friend: "My little girl thrives under the influences of a Devonshire climate, and is, I am delighted to say, strong and healthy". The winter, however, turned out very wild, and one night the Duke, returning to Walbrook Cottage from a walk in wind and sleet, naturally got himself soaked. Unfortunately before changing his dress he went to the nursery, where, forgetting his own condition, he played and laughed with the baby till he got such a chill that he had to take to bed. He became so ill the doctors could not cure him, and he died on the 23rd of January, 1820.

Before she was a year old, therefore, Victoria lost her good and amiable father, and was left to the care of her mother, now widowed a second time. It must always be told to the credit of the Duchess of Kent that henceforth she devoted all her energies to train and fit her daughter to occupy worthily the great place destined for her. This could not have been accomplished by allowing her to contract idle careless habits. On the contrary, the Princess was taught to work at her lessons as diligently as if she had to depend on education for a livelihood.

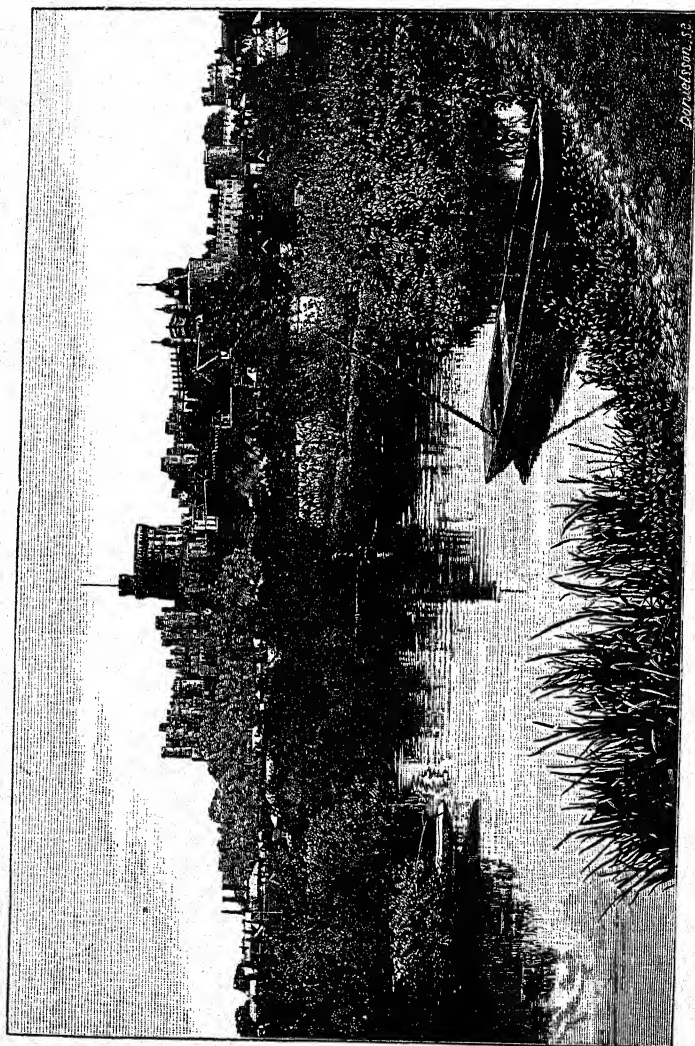
You may see this from the descriptions of her given by contemporary writers. Sir Walter Scott, for instance, wrote in his diary, on 19th May, 1828, when Victoria was within a few days of her ninth birthday: "Dined

with the Duchess of Kent. I was very kindly received by Prince Leopold, and presented to the little Victoria, the heir-apparent to the Crown as things now stand. The little lady is educated with much care, and watched so closely that no busy maid has a moment to whisper: 'You are heir of England'. I suspect, if we could inspect the little heart, we should find that some pigeon, or other bird of the air, had carried the matter."

As, two years after that, the poet Thomas Moore describes her as singing duets with her mother, it is plain that she was early drilled in music; but, though taught the lighter accomplishments by a variety of teachers, she also made steady progress in the harder subjects, such as Latin, mathematics and history, under the care of Dr. Davys, afterwards Bishop of Peterborough. On Sundays it was her mother's custom to question her on the points of the sermon heard at church, so that she was obliged to listen most attentively to the preacher.

Besides all this she was under the constant care of a most diligent and praiseworthy governess, the Baroness Lehzen, of whom the Queen herself wrote in 1870: "She knew me from six months old, and from my fifth to my eighteenth year devoted all her care and energies to me with the most wonderful abnegation of self, never even taking one day's holiday. I adored, though I was greatly in awe of her. She really seemed to have no thought but for me." The Queen afterwards said that her young life at Kensington Palace was dull, but any one who desires to be fitted for a great position must bravely face the necessary training.

And it was not all work with Victoria. She had her flowers and pets at the palace, and often was to be



WINDSOR CASTLE FROM THE THAMES.

seen in Kensington Gardens with her tiny carriage and pony, or her donkey. Often, too, we hear of parties and pleasure gatherings at which she was present. Her godfather, the Prince Regent, when he became George IV., or "Uncle King," grew very fond of his little niece. On her fourth birthday, the "first gentleman of Europe," as he loved to be called, made her a beautiful present of his own portrait set with brilliants.

She was present at a famous children's ball, given in St. James's Palace in honour of the young Queen of Portugal. That was when Victoria was ten; and a year after, George IV. passing away, was succeeded by his brother William, whose wife, Queen Adelaide, proved a tender and affectionate friend to her niece. "My children are dead, but yours lives, and she is mine too," she wrote to the Duchess of Kent, and her acts proved that the simple and pathetic words were inspired by a very genuine love. On Queen Adelaide's first birthday drawing-room, the Princess Victoria was very much noticed, standing at the Queen's left hand, and looking very beautiful, with a string of pearls round her neck, and a diamond in her fair hair. Nor was there any abatement of Queen Adelaide's kindness as long as she lived.

CHAPTER II.

THE DEATH OF WILLIAM IV.

As Sir Walter Scott hinted in his diary, the Duchess of Kent had very wisely refrained from filling her child's head at too early an age with ideas of her future grandeur. It was not till George IV. was dead and William was reigning that the Baroness Lehzen suggested that the time had arrived when Victoria should be told that she was next in succession to the throne. The plan adopted was as follows. One morning, after her tutor, Mr. Davys, had gone she found in the history book she had been reading a paper setting forth the facts. It had been put in on purpose, though she seemed to come on it accidentally.

"I never saw that before," said the Princess.

"It was not thought necessary you should, Princess," was the reply of her governess.

"I see," continued the Princess, "I am nearer the throne than I thought." And then after a pause: "Now many a child would boast, but they don't know the difficulty. There is much splendour, but there is more responsibility." There and then she came to a resolution that has been royally carried into effect. "I will be good," she exclaimed, "I understand now why you urged me so much to learn even Latin. My cousins Augusta and Mary never did; but you told me Latin is the

foundation of English grammar and of all the elegant expressions, and I learned it as you wished, but I understand all better now." Then she concluded as she had begun by saying, "I will be good".

"But, said the Baroness, "your Aunt Adelaide is still young and may have children, and, of course, they would ascend the throne after their father, William IV., and not you, Princess."

"And if it is so," she replied, "I should never feel disappointed, for I know by the love Aunt Adelaide bears me how fond she is of children."

No doubt Victoria's faultless bearing when at length called to the throne was largely due to the preparatory training of the Duchess of Kent. She was not only taught the lessons of school, but means were taken for her to learn the nature of the country and the people whom she was to govern. If she saw but little of the gaieties of court and society, abundant opportunities were provided for her to become acquainted with her future subjects. In summer they went to watering places such as Sidmouth, Malvern, Tunbridge Wells, Broadstairs, and Brighton, and the Duchess and her daughter made several long tours over England. In those days a journey was very different from what it is now.

The traveller of to-day steps into a railway carriage at Euston and is whisked to Holyhead without seeing more than a flying panorama of green fields and one or two crowds of bustling passengers and porters at the railway stations. But when the Queen as a girl made this journey, it had to be gone about slowly and leisurely, with carriage and horses, and with numerous stoppages, so that the tourist could not help being familiarised with the features of the landscape and the

inhabitants of towns on the route. The Princess, too, saw more than a private person would have done, because of the crowds eager to catch a sight of their future queen.

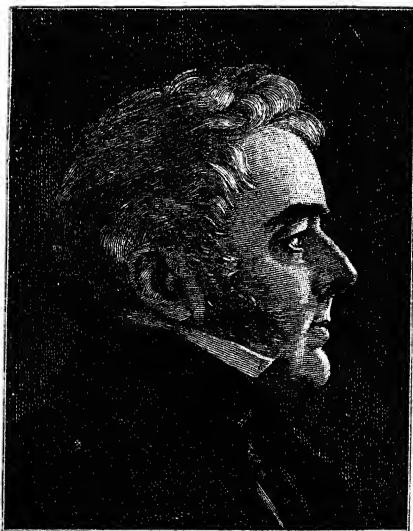
Thus the years of her early girlhood gradually wore away in the study not only of books but of men and women, and the acquisition of the knowledge and wisdom desirable in a ruler. But while she was growing and ripening King William IV. was undergoing the opposite process. Old age and infirmity were telling upon him, and in the spring of 1837 it began to be feared that he would never rally again from the illness with which he was seized. The fact was recognised with national sorrow. The "Sailor King," whose brusque, downright ways had often caused embarrassment in the days of his strength and vigour, faced death with a tranquil piety and gentleness that revealed in his character depths of nobility which previously had been concealed under a rough speech and irritable manner. But the wishes for his recovery proved vain, and he died a little after two o'clock in the morning of the 20th of June, 1837.

William died at Windsor, and as soon as the event took place Lord Conyngham and the Archbishop of Canterbury started for Kensington Palace to inform the Princess. How she received the news is thus related by Miss Wynn, who wrote the *Diaries of a Lady of Quality*: "We were listening all day for the tolling of the bells, watching whether the guests were going to the Waterloo dinner at Apsley House. On Tuesday, at 2:30 A.M., the scene closed, and in a very short time the Archbishop of Canterbury and Lord Conyngham, the Chamberlain, set out to announce the event to their young sovereign.



QUEEN VICTORIA AT HER ACCESSION.
Engraved by Thompson after a portrait by Lane.

"They reached Kensington Palace at about five; they knocked, they rang, they thumped for a considerable time before they could rouse the porter at the gate; they were again kept waiting in the court-yard, then turned into one of the lower rooms, where they seemed forgotten by everybody. They rang the bell,



VISCOUNT MELBOURNE.

From a figure in Hayter's Reformed Parliament in the National Portrait Gallery.

and desired that the attendant of the Princess Victoria might be sent to inform her Royal Highness that they requested an audience on business of importance. After another delay, and another ringing to inquire the cause, the attendant was summoned, who stated that the Princess was in such a sweet sleep she could not venture to disturb her.

"Then they said: 'We are come to the *Queen* on business of state, and even her sleep must give way to that'. It did; and, to prove that she did not keep them waiting, in a few minutes she came into the room in a loose white night-gown and shawl, her night-cap thrown off, her feet in slippers, tears in her eyes, but perfectly collected and dignified."

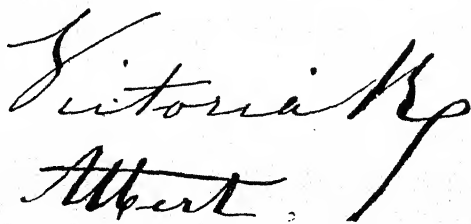
In a few words the Lord Chamberlain told their errand, and after the Archbishop had addressed to her a short "charge," bearing on the great duties and responsibilities now devolving upon her, she retired. Soon afterwards the Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, was summoned, and a meeting of the Privy Council was called for eleven o'clock. Then the Lord Chancellor administered the usual oath to the new sovereign; the members of the Cabinet and other Privy Councillors present swore allegiance in their turn.

She was little more than eighteen at this time, but acquitted herself to admiration. Once only did she show some embarrassment. "After she had read her speech," writes Mr. Greville, "and taken and signed the oath for the security of the Church of Scotland, the Privy Councillors were sworn, the two royal Dukes first by themselves; and as these two old men, her uncles, knelt before her, swearing allegiance, and kissing her hand, I saw her blush up to the eyes, as if she felt the contrast between their civil and their natural relations, and this was the only sign of emotion which she evinced. Her manner to them was very graceful and engaging; she kissed them both, and rose from her chair and moved towards the Duke of Sussex, who was farthest from her, and too infirm to reach her."

CHAPTER III.

PRINCE ALBERT.

ONE reason for the kind and affectionate feeling that exists between the Queen and her subjects arises out of the interest they have taken in each other's affairs. In one sense the Queen has not lived apart from her people; on the contrary, she has with a simple, womanly sincerity entered into their joys and sorrows, whether public or private. To those

The image shows two handwritten signatures in cursive. The top signature is 'Victoria' followed by a large, sweeping flourish. The bottom signature is 'Albert' followed by a smaller flourish. Both are written in dark ink on a light background.

SIGNATURES OF THE QUEEN AND THE PRINCE CONSORT.

who have suffered from distress often indeed have her wise compassionate words been a comfort.

It has already been recorded how she came to the throne at eighteen, a beautiful, high-spirited, healthy girl, with the memory of a studious and quiet childhood behind her. There was a natural anxiety to see her married, for the country had had experience of the evils

of disputed succession, and at her coronation there was much talk about her possible choice. At the opening of Parliament in 1840, all doubt was set at rest by the declaration that the Queen intended to marry her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. As early as 1836, when he had paid a visit to England, the Queen had taken such a liking to him as gradually developed into a deep affection. Sir Robert Peel in the House of Commons accurately described the match as "an alliance founded on attachment".

The story of the proposal has often been told. According to the rules of etiquette it was not permissible for Prince Albert to "pop the question" to the Queen, as he might have done to any one of inferior degree. Some time after, when the Council had to be told of the matter, the Queen referred to it in a lively manner. "You will be very nervous on declaring your engagement to the Council," the Duchess of Gloucester had remarked. "Yes," replied the Queen, "but I did something far more trying to my nerves a short time since." "What was that?" asked the Duchess. "I proposed to Albert," replied the Queen.

The course of events has gone to prove that the Queen's choice was made wisely and well. At the time Prince Albert was a handsome youth, just three months younger than his royal sweetheart, and when the marriage took place, and the joy bells had ceased their ringing, it soon became manifest that the Queen and her husband were united by a pleasant similarity of taste and sentiment as well as by marriage, indeed, one could judge as much from a certain likeness in their features. They were both fond of music, and played and sang together; they read the same books, and liked the same pictures, and altogether seemed as



THE PRINCE CONSORT.

happy and accomplished a couple as one could wish to see.

But the Prince was not wholly devoted to pleasure; underneath his polished exterior was a strong and good character, a character that drew from Lord Tennyson this splendid tribute:—

And indeed he seems to me
Scarce other than my king's ideal knight,
"Who revered his conscience as his king;
Whose glory was redressing human wrong;
Who spake no slander, no, nor listened to it,
Who loved one only, and who clave to her".

There was nothing frivolous in the manner in which Prince Albert set about fulfilling the duties of the high position to which he had been called. From the day on which she came to the throne, the Queen had shown a determination, by the patient study of state papers and by conversation with her ministers, to master the questions of the hour, and her zeal did not excel that of the Prince. Especially in regard to those subjects that assist the peaceful progress of the nation was Prince Albert active.

He took a deep interest in education at a time when the nation was very backward in this respect. He fostered art and science, and never lost a chance of aiding in the industrial development of the country. Above all, he set a model of domestic virtue to the people; so that no court in Europe was purer, no humblest citizen took more pains to make what the poet Burns calls "a happy fireside clime for weans and wife".

We can here do no more than record a few incidents in his career that illustrate and confirm these general statements.

He originated the idea of the great International Exhibition of 1851. Since then we have had a vast number of similar shows, and are inclined to undervalue the importance of the first, but its success gave a very great impulse to the advance of science and industry. During five months of summer the great palace of glass and iron in Hyde Park was thronged with visitors from every country in the world, each of whom carried away a knowledge of what other men had accomplished, some ideas that were better than he had known before.

No one has described the scene on the opening day better than the Queen herself. "The sight, as we came to the middle, was magical," she writes, "so vast, so glorious, so touching; one felt, as so many did whom I have since spoken to, filled with devotion, more so than by any service I have ever heard. The tremendous cheers, the joy expressed in every face, the immensity of the building, the mixture of palms, flowers, trees, statues, fountains; the organ (with 200 instruments and 600 voices) which sounded like nothing; and my beloved husband the author of this peace festival, which united the industry of all nations of the earth."

As chairman of the Fine Arts Committee of the House of Commons and President of the Society of Arts, Prince Albert had many opportunities of forwarding the artistic education of the country. In politics he exerted a pacifying and harmonising influence. During the early years of her reign the Queen had shown more tendency than was advisable to identify herself with the Whigs. Lord Melbourne acted a very kind and fatherly part to the young sovereign of eighteen, and though he advised her to treat all parties alike, it was some time before she could get on well with his opponents.

The Duke of Wellington was at first hopeless of her

ever doing so. "I," he said, "have no small-talk, and Peel has no manners." But Prince Albert helped to bridge this difficulty. He and Peel had many interests in common. They became great friends, and afterwards the Queen was never known to make any distinction between one party and another. It will thus be seen that Prince Albert, or the Prince Consort, as he became, did his duty well to the country of his adoption. Unfortunately he did not live to enjoy a full recognition of his many virtues.

ENGLAND.

This royal throne of kings, this sceptred isle ;
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars ;
This other Eden, demi-paradise ;
This fortress, built by Nature for herself
Against infection and the hand of war ;
This happy breed of men, this little world ;
This precious stone set in the silver sea
(Which serves it in the office of a wall,
Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands) ;
This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England,
This nurse, this teeming womb of royal kings,
Feared by their breed and famous by their birth,
Renowned for their deeds as far from home
(For Christian service and true chivalry)
As is the sepulchre, in stubborn Jewry,
Of the world's ransom, blessed Mary's Son.

RICHARD II., *Act ii., Scene i.*

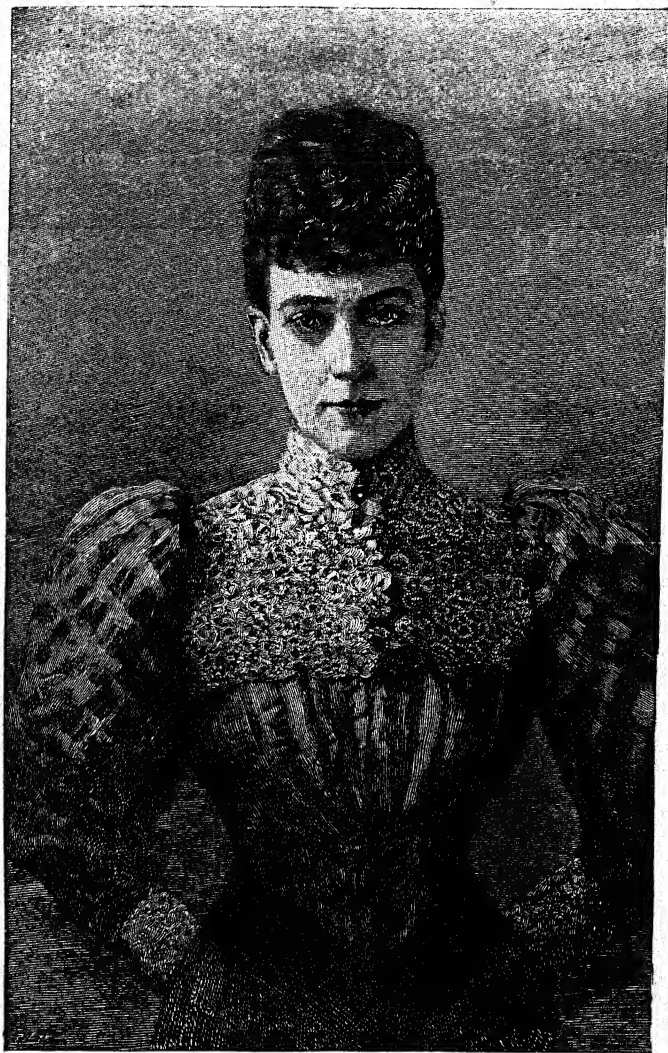
CHAPTER IV.

WIFE AND WIDOW.

So far Queen Victoria's life appears one to be envied. Things had all gone smoothly with her. Born to a great estate, and trained and educated for it, her path in life appeared to be shaped and smoothed for her happiness. Even in the early years of her reign, however, there were certain little shadows and annoyances. Before marriage she had the ill-luck to inspire more than one infatuated young man with passion. Most of them, like the suitor whose phaeton and pair used to follow her in the park, were merely ridiculous. A young Scot travelled all the way from his native country to Windsor for the purpose of asking her hand. Equally ardent was the wooer who tried to make love to her in the Chapel Royal, and the commercial traveller who approached the royal carriage for the same purpose in Hyde Park.

These were trivial annoyances, but her exalted position exposed her to more serious danger. Several times she was threatened, and more than one attempt has been made upon her life—the would-be murderers in every case being either of weak intellect or quite out of their minds.

On 10th June, 1840—the very year in which she was married—a pot-boy, seventeen years old, named



THE PRINCESS OF WALES [Photo. Russell.
(NOW THE QUEEN-DOWAGER ALEXANDRA)

Edward Oxford, fired a pistol at the Queen as she was driving up Constitution Hill with the Prince. He was pronounced insane by the jury who tried him, and was sentenced to be imprisoned during her Majesty's pleasure. Two years afterwards, a lad of twenty-two, named John Francis, shot at her with a pistol on the very same spot. He was sentenced to death, but at the intercession of the Queen and Prince Albert the punishment was altered to one of transportation for life.

The very day after this was announced witnessed another of these silly and insane attempts. A stupid boy, named Bean, presented a pistol at her near Buckingham Palace, but his hand was seized by another boy standing near. It was found that he had rammed powder, paper, and scraps of a clay-pipe into the weapon. In May, 1849, an Irish bricklayer named Hamilton discharged a pistol at her, also on Constitution Hill. An ex-lieutenant of hussars named Pate struck her in the mouth as she was leaving a carriage on 27th May, 1850, and a pistol was presented at her near Buckingham Palace in 1872. As late as 1882 an attempt was made on her life by a lunatic named Madden, and several times she has been threatened. One common feature of all these would-be murderers deserves remark. Not one seems to have been prompted by political hatred. They were insane methods of calling attention to fancied wrongs.

There were deeper afflictions awaiting the Queen. It was after twenty-one years of the happiest married life that clouds of sorrow began to overshadow the throne. On 16th March, 1861, her mother, the Duchess of Kent, died, after undergoing a surgical operation. "*She is gone,*" wrote the Queen to her

Uncle Leopold, "that precious, dearly loved, tender mother, whom I never parted from but for a few months."

Still, the Duchess had lived in honour and happiness to a good old age, and time might be expected to reconcile her daughter to the inevitable loss. It is otherwise when a man is cut off in his maturity. The Prince Consort had never been physically strong. For some time he had suffered from stomachic cramp and nausea. "I am sure," he had said to the Queen, "if I had a severe illness, I should give up at once; I should not struggle for life; I have no tenacity of life." His words proved true, and almost prophetic. In November of the same year in which the Queen had lost her mother, her husband was attacked by typhoid fever. By the middle of December he was dead.

He was only forty-two years of age, and it might have been expected that he still had before him a long period of activity and usefulness. We need not dwell on the widow's sorrow at the time, or the abiding grief, of which symptoms still appear from time to time, and prove how his memory is cherished by that good and faithful heart.

The Queen, with a frankness equally charming and wise, has taken her subjects very fully into her confidence. Books such as her own *Leaves from Our Journal in the Highlands*, and Sir Theodore Martin's *Life of the Prince Consort*, enable us very fully to realise the contrast between the gay and joyous life she and Prince Albert led together, and the sober, almost austere, existence she has passed since his death.

The Queen has had to drink the same full cup in her capacity as mother. Sometimes she has had reason to rejoice with her family, or to be proud of her sons and

daughters ; not infrequently they have caused mourning and anxiety. Her eldest child was a daughter, the Princess Victoria, born on 21st November, 1840. In 1858 she was married to Prince Frederick of Prussia, afterwards, for a brief space, the German Emperor. The Crown Prince Frederick was a conspicuous figure in London at the jubilee celebrations in 1887, but he was already suffering from the painful disease that carried him off in the following year. He bore his hard fate like a hero, and his dignity and resignation deepened the strange pathos of the spectacle in which a dying man was invested with earthly powers he was never to wield.

Her next child was Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, the present heir-apparent to the throne, born 9th November, 1841. In 1863 he was married to the Princess Alexandra, the eldest daughter of King Christian IX. of Denmark, a lady of whom it is not too much to say that she has been loved in England almost as much as the Queen herself. The Prince of Wales has steadily advanced in public estimation with the advance of years. It would not appear as if the country quite knew how popular he was until his great illness in 1871. He was taken with typhoid fever at Sandringham, his country home in Norfolk, and for a time it was doubted if he would recover. All at once the nation seemed to awaken to a knowledge of the hold he had upon its affection, and never was the news from a sick-bed awaited with so much solicitude by so many.



THE PRINCE OF WALES [Photo. Russell.
(HIS LATE MAJESTY KING EDWARD VII.)

CHAPTER V.

MOTHER, GRANDMOTHER, AND GREAT-GRANDMOTHER.

THE Queen has peculiar reasons for keeping the 14th of December as a solemn anniversary. It was not only because the Prince Consort died on that day, but it was fatal to another of her nearest and dearest. Of all the children of the Queen, there was none regarded with a warmer affection by rich and poor than the Princess Alice. She was a girl of nineteen at her father's death, and had nursed him in his illness. She was as the apple of his eye, and whenever any of the royal family fell sick, it was the Princess Alice whom they liked to have at their side.

When the Prince of Wales lay ill at Sandringham, it was she who cared for him. The Queen wrote concerning her: "She is very good, sensible, and amiable, and a real comfort to me. I shall not let her marry as long as I can reasonably delay her doing so." But when the young lady fell in love with Prince Louis of Hesse-Darmstadt her father and mother offered no objection to the marriage, which was celebrated in 1862.

As mother, the same duties devolved on the Princess that she had fulfilled as daughter and sister. She had seven children, of whom one died in her arms after accidentally tumbling from a window, and in 1878

diphtheria broke out in the family, and the youngest also died. She insisted on nursing the children herself, but it cost her her life, for she caught the terrible disease, and died as her father had done, on the 14th of December. It is seldom that those of royal blood are so sincerely mourned, but the Princess had carried the same helpful benevolence of disposition into all departments of life, and the nation was quick to recognise that it had lost a woman whose intrinsic worth must have been the same in whatever position of life she had been placed.

Somewhat akin to the Princess Alice in the sweetness of his disposition, and distinguished among his brothers and sisters by the exceptional vigour of his mind and fondness for intellectual pursuits, was Prince Leopold, who was born in 1853, and died 1884. He had always been physically weaker than the rest, but it often happens that the frail, partly because of their frailty, are loved more than the strong, and Prince Leopold held a high place in the hearts of his countrymen.

Of the other children of the Queen, it is not necessary to say much. In the Duke of Edinburgh we have once more a sailor prince who is an ornament to the most popular profession of a country "set in the silver sea". Of the Princess Louise, born in 1848, it has to be recorded that she is the only daughter of the Queen married to a subject, the Marquis of Lorne, eldest son of the Duke of Argyll. The youngest of all, the Princess Beatrice, was married in 1884 to Prince Henry of Battenberg, who died in 1896.

It would be a long task merely to enumerate the more remote descendants of the Queen. She became a grandmother at a very early age. Her first grandson was the present German Emperor, born on 27th Janu-

ary, 1859, when the Queen was only in her fortieth year. In addition to him, the Dowager Empress bore seven other children. But for us the greatest interest attaches to the family of the Prince of Wales, as being closest to the succession. The country at one time was very much interested in the travels and education of the two boys Albert and George, and great was the popular distress when it became known, early in 1892, that the former, the Duke of Clarence and Avondale, was lying seriously ill at Sandringham. He died on the 14th of January, to the great grief of the country at large, as well as of his parents, his grandmother, and other members of the royal family.

The Duke of York now became, after the Prince of Wales, heir to the throne, and there was, when the first pangs of grief had passed, an anxiety that he should marry and have children to maintain the succession in a direct line. He chose a very popular and beautiful lady for his bride, the Princess Victoria Mary—familiarly known as the Princess May—of Teck. As they already have three children—two boys and a girl—there is little apprehension of any break in the direct succession. A daughter of the Prince of Wales, the Princess Louise, following the example of her name-aunt, accepted the hand of the Duke of Fife—an event viewed with great satisfaction by numbers of people who welcome any alliance between the Royal House and the great British families.

It will thus be seen that the Queen has lived to see not only her children grow up, but their children also get married and have sons and daughters. At twenty-one she was a mother, at forty-one a grandmother, and before she was sixty-one—in 1879 to be exact—she was a great-grandmother. To Abraham of



THE DUKE OF YORK
(NOW KING GEORGE V.)

[Photo. Russell.]

old it was prophesied that his descendants should be as the stars of heaven or as the sands of the sea-shore for multitude, and in her case the promise bids fair to be carried out.

MARRIAGE OF T.R.H. THE DUKE AND DUCHESS OF YORK.

Fac-simile of signatures from Chapel Royal Register.

This marriage was solemnised between us this sixth day of July, 1893.

George.
Victoria Mary

This marriage was solemnised in the presence of us on the day before mentioned.

Victoria
Arthur
Alexandra

A sober common-sense inference to be drawn from the fact is that her family must have been, in homely language, "well-brought up," not pampered and spoiled



THE PRINCESS MAY (DUCHESS OF YORK).

(NOW QUEEN MARY)

[Photo. Russell.]

by luxury and foolishness, but taught to live wisely and healthily. Merely to tell the story is to pronounce her eulogy. In her domestic relations the Queen has set a splendid example to all women. She began by being a dutiful and affectionate daughter. Unfortunately her father was cut off before he had a chance to experience the effect of this excellent trait in her character, but her only remaining parent was loved and cherished to the end. "I held her dear hand in mine to the very last," wrote the Queen, "which I am truly thankful for."

As wife she carried into actual practice the ideal set forth by Shakespeare. While living, Prince Albert was her "dear lord and master," and she devoted herself to him, as we hear in the *Paston Letters* of noble ladies of an earlier time devoting themselves to their lords. She was a true wife during her husband's lifetime, and after his death her faithful memory reminds one of the last lines of the Border Widow's lament:—

With ae lock o' his gowden hair,
I'll twine my heart for evermair.

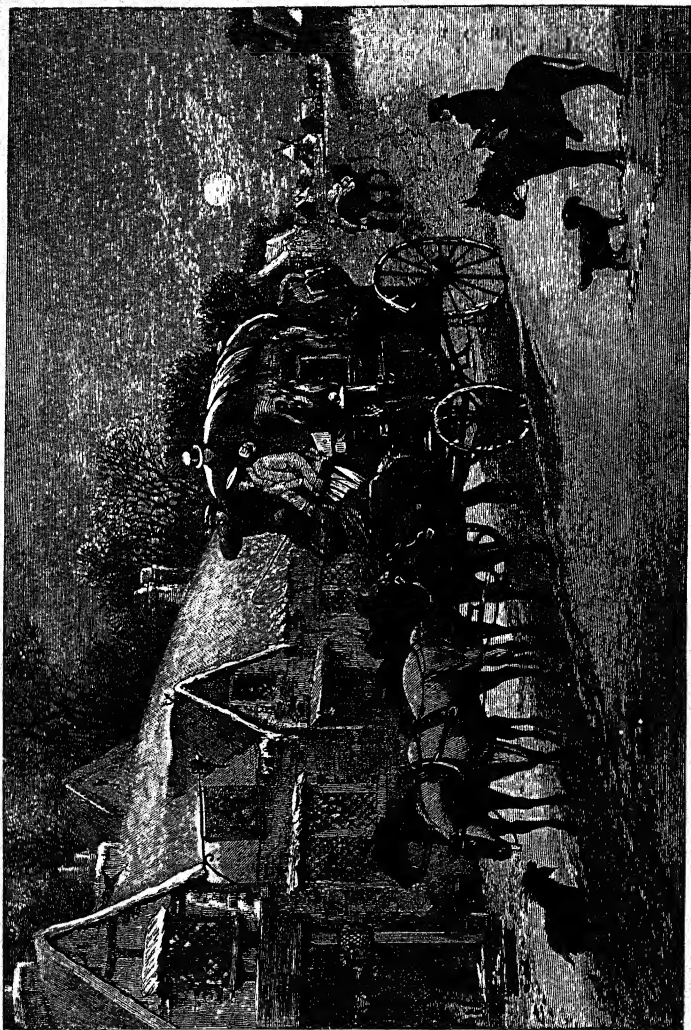
Finally, as mother in that great and royal house of which she is head, no greater praise can be given her, and no less is due, than that she has been all that we expect the best English mother to be. She, in her high estate, has done what those of lower degree can do also, she has nobly discharged the duties devolving on her, and those who would pass through life wisely and well will never find a better model to imitate, a purer or more wholesome career on which to meditate.

CHAPTER VI.

THE OLD MAIL-COACH.

It is very difficult for any one born in the later period of Queen Victoria's reign to imagine what the world was like in 1837. For example, how different London itself must have been! At that time, instead of its immense suburban and main line traffic, it had only one railway, that between Deptford and Greenwich, which had been opened in 1836, more as a taking show than a practical means of transit. There was a barrel-organ at Deptford "to play the passengers in," and a band of music, the members dressed like beefeaters, to receive them at Greenwich. We shall presently see that navvies and surveyors and engineers were hard at work on a number of lines, and that others were in full swing in the North, but as yet the engine had done little to supersede the stage coach. Indeed, three years later, only 840 miles of railway had been laid down.

To the young, especially in summer, it was very pleasant to travel in the "Wonder," "Tallyho," or other stage coach. The horses stepped out briskly, for the system had been carried to great perfection, and there was not a moment to be lost. The guard blew his horn, and the passengers bowed along merrily. Ever and anon, the vehicle would draw up at one of the famous old inns which lay on the great roads, where the tired horses were quickly unharnessed and the fresh team brought



THE STAGE COACH.

out, and on it would go again. For horses, the travelling was very swift indeed. But what travelling was like in those days will best be seen by noting the time allowed for certain mail-coaches. One of the fastest mails was that between Shrewsbury and Holyhead, a distance of 107 miles, timed at eleven miles an hour. By road, the distance from London to Edinburgh was 395 miles, and the mail was timed to go in forty-two hours, twenty-three minutes, and return in forty-five hours, thirty-nine minutes. A famous private coach, called the "Defiance" ran from Edinburgh to Aberdeen, a distance of $129\frac{1}{4}$ miles in twelve hours and ten minutes, very quick time indeed when you remember that the loaded carriage had to be ferried across the Forth at Queensferry. The "Telegraph" took seventeen hours from the Bull Inn, Aldgate, to Exeter.

These were regular performances, and will afford some idea of express travelling in 1837. On special occasions they were surpassed. It is recorded that the "Patent Tallyho" coach on one occasion ran from London to Birmingham, a distance of 109 miles, in seven hours and fifty minutes. The "Quicksilver" used to run from the Three Nuns in Aldgate to Brighton in four hours and a half, and on one occasion carried the King's Speech at the opening of Parliament in three hours and forty minutes.

But how dismayed a business man of to-day would be if the slowest train went at no swifter pace than the fastest of these coaches! He may at five o'clock jump into a train at London Bridge and be in Brighton at five minutes past six. Moreover, he may take his choice of a score of trains of which even those that stop at all the intermediate stations do not take more than two hours and a quarter.

In long journeys the difference becomes still more important. We have seen that a traveller with the luck to get into Edinburgh just as the "Defiance" was ready to start, if he could forego sleep so long, might manage to reach Aberdeen from London in fifty-four hours thirty-three minutes. Now (1897) he may step into a railway carriage at King's Cross at ten in the morning, and at five minutes past ten on the same night arrive in the Granite City. What would the old coachman on the Western Road have thought if when rattling down the street with his spanking team, and proud of having got from London to Exeter in seventeen hours, some one had told him a time was coming when the traveller would expect to perform it in four?

Nevertheless, greater speed is not the most important gain. It is when we compare the traffic carried by coaches with that drawn in trains that the vast revolution accomplished by the latter is understood. Let us see what was meant by a good coach-load in the olden time. Here is a description by a great coachman, who describes what he saw with his own eyes:—

"In the first place, there were four inside and twelve out, exclusive of the guard. The fore boot was full of small parcels, the hind boot was the same; the roof of the coach was piled up as high as it could be to allow of its passing under the archway of the inn; and boxes and carpet-bags, gun-cases, hampers, and every description of luggage for the sixteen people who were inside and out, were heaped up and hanging over the sides of the roof, which was all covered with tarpaulin, and securely strapped down with a broad leather strap. It was wonderful to behold, and wonderful to imagine how it could be all stowed away. On the very lamp-irons you would often see game-baskets hung, and hares and

pheasants dangling down. Under the coach there was often swung a 'cradle,' into which various things which could go nowhere else were put."

Sixteen passengers and as much luggage as four horses could drag at the gallop—be the coach loaded ever so ingeniously—would be a flea-bite to the "Flying Scotsman". To grasp the stupendous change effected by steam locomotion it is but necessary to remember the bare fact that our railways carry in round numbers 900,000,000 passengers and 325,000,000 tons of goods annually. It has been estimated that in 1834 the stage coaches, then at their best, carried 30,000,000 passengers, an average distance of twelve miles each at an average cost of five shillings and five-pence a mile

The larger traffic of to-day is done with far greater cheapness as well as expedition. For instance, the fare from King's Cross to Newcastle by train is £1 18s. 3d. first class, and £1 2s. 7½d. third—the journey lasting less than six hours; the coaching fare used to be £4 10s. inside and £2 5s. outside, not including road expenses, and the journey—by express mail—took thirty hours. The road expenses came to a very considerable sum, as the guard and coachman depended largely on "tips," and it was scarcely possible to endure such a long journey without having dinner or luncheon at one of the inns on the way. The railway fare from London to York is £1 7s. first class, or 15s. 8d. second; the coaching fare was £3 5s. inside and £1 14s. out, again exclusive of road expenses. Obviously, then, only the comparatively rich and well-to-do could find the means of travelling by stage coach; the rest of the population either had to stay at home or adopt certain means of locomotion that were slower and homelier.

CHAPTER VII.

ON THE HIGHWAY.

IF anyone had made a journey over England on foot or on horseback in 1837 what sort of traffic would he have met with? Let us try to find an answer to that question. In our time the remote country lanes are very quiet and almost deserted. Now and then a cyclist wheels along, the farmer jogs past in his gig, a butcher or a grocer's spring-cart turns up to the farms or stops at the cottages, heavy shire horses drag loads of corn to the station or return from it with oil-cake and manures. But the traveller on foot may walk for miles and miles without meeting anybody. Yet here and there he will come to what are now only beer-houses, but seem to have been built for a very different state of things. The building and stabling are much too large for all the business done, and, perhaps, the name of the inn, the William or the George, will indicate when it was built. Once upon a time all this accommodation was barely sufficient. That was in days when the landlord horsed the mail-coaches, of which, perhaps, a dozen in the course of twenty-four hours rattled up to the door, and, except for canals, the highway was the only means of transit.

Poor people could not afford to travel in a stage coach. Those who were strong and healthy made their

journey on foot ; others, if the distance was short, got a lift in a carrier's cart or a farmer's waggon. For longer distances there was the stage waggon, a great lumbering vehicle, with broad wheels and eight or ten horses, which did not travel at a faster rate than four miles an hour. The driver, with a great thong in his hand, rode by the side of his team on a pony, and women and children made themselves comfortable under the tilted cover. It was a slow but cheap means of conveyance. A stage coach had to buy a licence costing £5 for every coachman and guard, as well as pay a duty based on the number of passengers it was licensed to carry ; but a waggon was not liable to these charges so long as it did not exceed a rate of four miles an hour. There were also quick-going vans to forward the heavier kind of luggage.

One sort of vehicle which was common enough then has quite gone out of use in this country, *viz.*, the dogcart. The dog is still an ordinary beast of burden in Belgium and other countries, and sixty years ago it was so used here, especially by London costermongers and greengrocers, and to a smaller extent in the country. Within living memory a well-known character, living close to the great North Road, used to race the coaches in a tiny cart drawn by a team of foxhounds. It was not till the year 1855 that the use of dogs as beasts of burden was prohibited by Act of Parliament.

If the stage coach was too expensive for the poor, it was not sufficiently exclusive for the rich, and our traveller was not unlikely to meet some magnate on the road travelling post. Lord William Lennox has told us what it cost to get from London to Holyhead by this method, the distance being 264 miles. The charge for

four horses, with post boys, gates, and ostlers amounted to £58 5s. 9d., and the expenses for four nights on the road, with beds, dinners and breakfasts for two persons and one maid, £5 8s., making a total of £63 13s. 9d. for the journey. After all, the party could not have been anything like so comfortable as the railway passengers of to-day, and the cost of a first-class ticket is only £2 2s. 8d., so that all three could have travelled for £6 8s., and instead of wasting four days on the journey it can be done, and is done regularly, in little more than six hours.

Often, too, the pedestrian would see farm carts and waggons, laden with sad-looking family groups and bits of furniture, toiling along towards a sea-port—it might be Bristol, or Hull, or Liverpool, or Southampton—for there had been hard times in England, and many turned their hopes to some distant shore. Between 1837 and 1850, the gross increase of population in England, that is, the excess of births over deaths, had been 3,647,000, but the net increase had been only 1,512,000, because no fewer than 2,135,000 had emigrated.

The majority had ceased to be English subjects, since at the beginning of the reign there was a strong prejudice against our colonies. Emigrants preferred the United States, chiefly because that country had begun the excellent system of offering homesteads to the settler, and to some extent they were influenced by William Cobbett, who in 1830 had written in his *Rural Rides*: “Ten large ships have gone this spring laden with these fugitives from the fangs of taxation,” and he had urged them to select the United States “in preference to those villainous colonies”. That is worth bearing in mind chiefly for the great alteration that has come over public sentiment.

Another sight, so common one would not have thought of commenting on it then, was that of a shepherd or drover, in his smock and with a couple of dogs at his heel, at a leisurely pace driving his fat sheep or cattle towards the market of London or another large town. Unless where water was available, this was the only method, and it was extremely wasteful both of time and flesh. Sir James Caird has related how a very well-known farmer in his day, Mr. Hudson of Holkham, Norfolk, told him that when he drove his fat beasts up to London a sheep often lost 10 lbs. and a bullock 28 lbs. on the way. He calculated the waste equal to £600 a year on the quantity of stock he sent up, and his statement is fully borne out by that of other farmers. Little did the farmers of 1837 conceive when they saw the gangs of navvies tunnelling and bridging and digging, and laying an iron way through their land, what an effect it would have.

If human traffic has changed its appearance, so also has the populace of the woods and fields. Mention may be made of one or two creatures very familiar then, but now rare. A traveller wrote a few years before the Queen's accession: "There used to be in that part of the country an incredible number of kites. These birds used to be soaring over the road, and over a wood called Moncks Wood in almost every direction; one used actually to see them sitting in the middle of the road, and on one occasion I remember counting as many as twenty-seven in the air at the same time! When a single specimen is seen now the event is spoken of in the papers. Often, too, we hear of the magpies coming up to the cottage door, or perching on the thatch, and many another bird, then as common as the sparrow, is now seen only on rare occasions.

CHAPTER VIII.

GEORGE STEPHENSON.

THERE are three days in the early part of the century that are landmarks in the history of locomotion by steam. The first is Tuesday, the 27th of September, 1825. On that morning crowds of sightseers, some on foot, some in carriages, some on horseback, might have been seen flocking into the town of Stockton-on-Tees. Holiday had been proclaimed for an entertainment of a strange and novel description. Many were there who had celebrated the battles of Trafalgar and Waterloo, but this time they were to witness a triumph of peace. Thousands had collected out of that love of amusement which attracted them to a race-meeting or a prize-fight. Few indeed realised that here was the beginning of a change, the like of which had not occurred since the beginning of the world; for it was the opening of the Stockton and Darlington Railway.

It was also the end of a long and arduous struggle. The country round about Darlington is famous for its coal-fields, but a great hindrance to the development of trade lay in the inadequate means of getting the mineral to market. To reach the sea, and thereby the London consumer, was difficult, and for land distribution there was nothing but carts and donkeys. At first the idea was to construct a canal, but, luckily, as it

turned out afterwards, the funds were not forthcoming, and in the year 1810, at a public meeting, a committee was appointed to inquire whether a railroad or canal between Darlington and Stockton were the more practicable. It was not, however, till 1818 that the engineers



GEORGE STEPHENSON.

By permission of Messrs. Henry Graves & Son.

reported favourably on the prospects of a railway. Long before that, short lines had been introduced in the mining districts of Wales and Northumberland, but they were simply tramways on which the haulage was done by horses. And, indeed, the directors of this line did not at first contemplate the use of any other force.

At first the projectors seemed to have had all the world against them. When the bill was introduced into Parliament it was defeated mainly through the influence of the Duke of Cleveland, who objected to the disturbance of one of his fox-covers. Some years later, however, the act was obtained. Yet the way did not seem clear, and Mr. Pease, to whose energy and perseverance success so far was due, had been pondering how to proceed, when there called upon him a man who described himself as "only the engine-wright at Killingworth," but who in the course of conversation very soon showed that he had the special knowledge and aptitude required to carry through the undertaking. Now, this stranger, who seemed to be a curious mixture of personal modesty and the greatest confidence in a favourite idea of his, rather startled his host by showing himself, as it appeared, a visionary in at least one aspect. He actually dreamt of using locomotive steam-engines on the line instead of horses. When Mr. Pease doubted, "Come over and see my engines at Killingworth," he said.

This was the celebrated George Stephenson, whose history is so intimately connected with the development of our railway system. No one had ever to depend more absolutely on his own resources. He was the son of old Bob Stephenson, as his neighbours called him, who, when George was little, had to find support for himself, a wife and six children out of a wage of twelve shillings a week. They lived in a house as poor as can be imagined, with unplastered walls, a clay floor and no ceiling—only the bare rafters—a place that would be thought a very inferior stable in these days. How they lived may be inferred from an incident that belongs to the days when George

was rich and prosperous. "Let's have a crowdie night," he would sometimes say when in his beautiful home at Taplow. Now a "crowdie" is made by simply pouring hot water on a basin of oatmeal, adding a little salt, and supping with milk or a pat of butter. It was the food of his childhood and early working days, and the relish imparted by hunger produced the liking that endured to the end of his life.

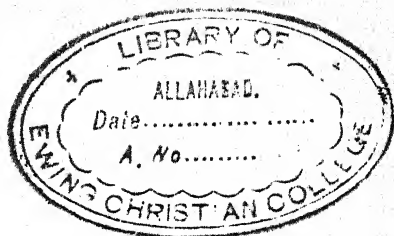
"Bob" could not afford to pay school fees, and George grew up ignorant of books, and to the very last was able to write only with the greatest difficulty. Yet his story proves that excellent as book knowledge is, there is an education outside of it. His father taught him at least to find birds' nests and take pleasure in observing the works of nature; he learned a great deal more by the use of his own eyes and brain. And it was done in the middle of hard work, for in those days as soon as a boy could earn a penny he was sent out to do it. George Stephenson's first task was the very humble one of "herdin' kye" (or minding cows) for a widow at a wage of twopence a day. Then he got on to lead the horses at ploughing, to hoe turnips, and do other farm work at fourpence a day; next to drive the gin-horse at sixpence a day, and at length he left the farm to drive the old gin-horse at a colliery.

Yet it must not be thought that because he had gone through all this before he was fifteen he spent a sad or miserable childhood. On the contrary, he was a merry high-spirited youth, a fine wrestler, good at leaping and lifting weights, and an adept at finding out birds' nests and making pets. However, it was the engine of which his father was fireman that beyond all else excited his curiosity, and one of his earliest pastimes was to model

it in clay while watching the cows. A happy lad he was when at the age of fourteen he was offered a shilling a day to act as assistant fireman to his father. That was the beginning of his practical insight into the wonderful machine that had excited his boyish admiration.

It would take too long to follow his career step by step from this humble position till by steadiness and good conduct he came to be engine-driver at Killingworth. He learned to read and write and count at eighteen. He mended shoes and cleaned clocks in his scanty leisure. By constant attention he acquired a thorough understanding of the mechanism of an engine, and at last began to devise improvements and inventions of his own. He cannot claim to have invented the locomotive engine, but he was the first to see its possibilities.

While members of Parliament treated the idea as that of a madman, and newspaper writers asked in scorn who would think of paying anything to be conveyed from Hexham to Newcastle on a dreary waggon-way in a kind of coal-waggon dragged by a roaring steam-engine, or scoffed at the notion of a steam-carriage travelling "at a rate almost equal to that of the fleetest horse," he had perfect confidence in the result. "Now lads," he said to his son Robert and John Dixon when the Stockton and Darlington line was well advanced, "I venture to tell you that I think you will live to see the day when railways will supersede almost all other methods of conveyance in this country—when mail-coaches will go by railway and railroads will become the great highways for the king and all his subjects." We know how the prophecy has been fulfilled.



CHAPTER IX.

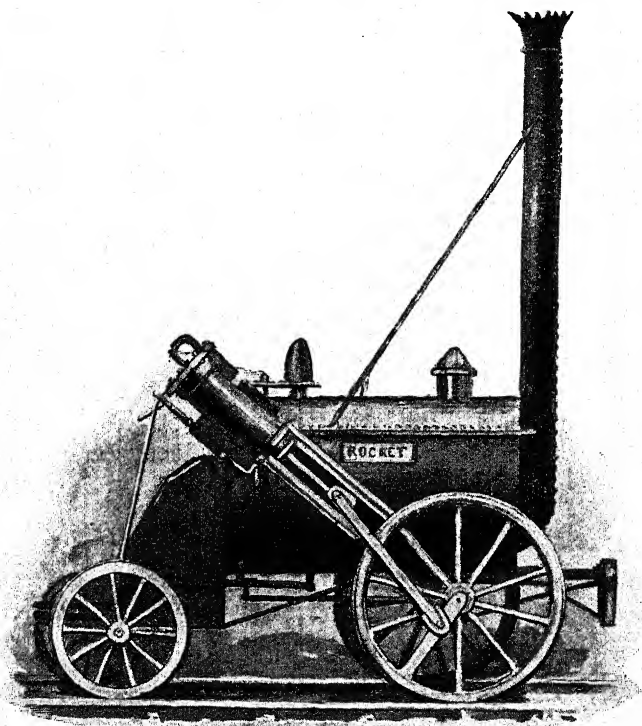
EARLY RAILWAYS.

THE opening of the Stockton and Darlington line—the first of three great landmarks alluded to in the foregoing chapter—offered what we should now consider a strange and almost ludicrous spectacle. At six in the morning, the directors exhibited the working of the inclined planes by a fixed engine, which drew a train of waggons up for a length of 1960 yards in seven minutes and a half, and let it run down 880 yards on the other side in five minutes. Then came the great procession of the day. Stephenson had built a locomotive engine, which he drove himself. Next followed six waggons loaded with coal and flour, a coach full of directors and proprietors, twenty-one waggons crammed with passengers, and six more waggons full of coal. In front paced a horseman carrying a flag.

Nobody except Stephenson dreamt that the engine could outrun the horse. At a favourable point, however, he determined to try its speed, and shouting for the rider to get out of the way, he sent his snorting machine along at a rate of between twelve and fifteen miles an hour, to the astonishment of the huge concourse of spectators, who scampered and galloped and ran in a vain effort to keep up. A point in advance

had been gained, yet for long after the line had been opened for work, passenger coaches were drawn along it by horses only.

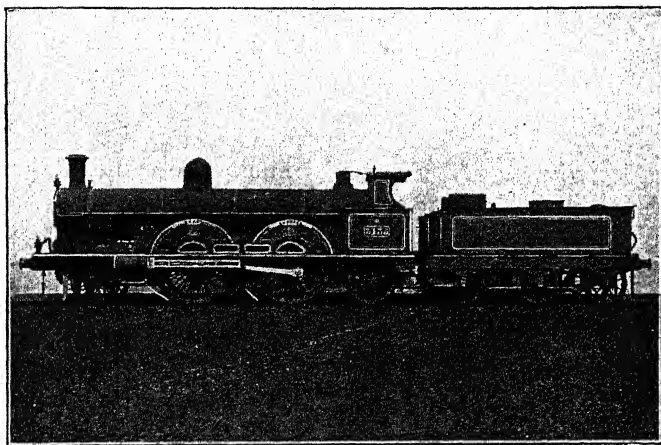
Our next landmark is the 14th of October, 1829,



THE ROCKET.

when Stephenson's "Rocket" carried off the first prize at Rainhill. A keen controversy, with Stephenson against the world, had raged as to whether fixed or locomotive engines were better for the new Manchester

and Liverpool line. The directors, to test the matter practically, had offered a prize for the best locomotive ; and though the competition had been originally fixed for the 6th it was not completed till the 14th of October, owing to accidents and breakdowns with the "Novelty" and the "Sanspareil," the only formidable rivals to the "Rocket". From this point it may be



THE "QUEEN EMPRESS".

Weight of engine and tender, 79 tons 7 cwts.

From photo, presented by L. & N. W. R. Company.

said that opposition to the locomotive engine as the best hauling power on railways ceased. Stephenson demonstrated that the "Rocket," which weighed only seven and a half tons, could draw a load of nine and a half tons at an average speed of over thirteen miles, an hour ; and that when freed from encumbrance it could get over the ground at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour.

On the 15th of September, 1830, it may be said that the seal was placed on his success. On that day a most brilliant assemblage came to witness the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester line, among the spectators being the great Duke of Wellington, at that time Prime Minister; Sir Robert Peel, Secretary of State; Mr. Huskisson, M.P. for Liverpool, and many other noted men of the time. Eight locomotives had been built and placed on the line, and it would have been a day of unclouded happiness to the great engineer but for an unfortunate accident by which Mr. Huskisson met his death, just after he had shaken hands with the Prime Minister. The event made a deep impression on the Duke of Wellington's mind. He could not be persuaded to look at or enter a railway carriage again till the year 1843, when he accompanied the Queen on a trip on the South-Western.

But though a great victory had been gained, it took many a long year of arduous work to develop the railway system. Yet there was every incentive to hurry, since the needs of the population had far outgrown the coaching system, which at times of extra large traffic was found wholly inadequate. When, for instance, people were flocking to London in 1837 to witness the Queen's coronation conveyances were so much in demand that as much as £10 was paid for a single seat in a donkey-chaise between Rugby and Denbigh.

For the slowness of development there were many causes. To show the difficulties let us look at the history of the London and Birmingham line, which in its main features is typical of many others. Immediately after the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester in 1830 the project was mooted, but it

was not completed till eight years after, that is to say in September, 1838, more than a year after the Queen's accession.

First, there was the difficulty of obtaining a survey of the line. Country gentlemen disliked to have their privacy invaded, their land cut up, their game preserves and fox-covers disturbed, and often the surveyor was obliged to go by night and, with the stealthiness of a poacher, try to get his measurements in the dark. The army of workers, no less than the capitalists connected with canals and highways, saw nothing but ruin in the success of railways. Stableboys, guards, coachmen, inn-keepers, ostlers, toll-keepers, coach-proprietors, and their kind, set the most dreadful stories going as to the dangers and disturbances threatened by the engine.

In the next place a private bill had to be got through Parliament, and here the opposition concentrated itself, not so strongly as it had done in the case of the Manchester and Liverpool, but sufficiently so to get the bill thrown out by the Peers, many of whom were land-owners on the line of route. That was in 1832, up to which time the preliminary expenses had amounted to £32,000. But nothing in the history of railways excites more admiration than the sturdy undaunted English determination with which each project was carried through by the promoters, and next session the bill was obtained, the total expenses of carrying it through Parliament amounting to £72,868. In addition to this the owners of land were paid £750,000 instead of the originally estimated £250,000, which may in part account for their change of attitude to the bill.

And now the difficulties of construction had to be

faced with inexperienced engineers and badly organised labour and poor tools. The story is too long to tell here of the bridges and tunnels, the partial failures and stoppages of this great work, but it remains as a testimony to the stubborn energy and thorough workmanship of the men of the time.

If it be remembered that this line was opened in 1838, the Birmingham and Derby in August, the Sheffield and Rotherham in November of 1839; in 1840 the Midland, the York and North Midland, the Chester and Crewe, the Chester and Birkenhead, the Manchester and Birmingham, the Manchester and Leeds, and the Maryport and Carlisle, it will not be difficult to imagine what a hammering, and shovelling, and pick-axing were going on in the year when Victoria succeeded William IV. This was the beginning of the 21,174 miles of railway now (1897) in working order in the United Kingdom.¹

¹ See Table IV. on p. 228.

CHAPTER X.

THE POST OFFICE.

ONE of the most striking features of the Queen's reign is that not one improvement alone, but a great combination of them, has made the period so famous in the history of human progress. In the very year of her accession there was published a brief pamphlet destined to work a revolution on its own account. This was "Post Office Reform: Its Importance and Practicability," by Mr. (afterwards Sir) Rowland Hill.

He had been attracted to the subject by a curious story told of the poet Coleridge. Once in his youth, while walking in the lake district, Coleridge saw the postman deliver a letter to a poor woman, who took it in her hands, turned it over, and then, with apparent reluctance, handed it back, declaring that she had not a shilling to pay the postage. The sentimental bard, hearing that the letter was from a distant brother, insisted on paying for it himself, though the woman did not wish to accept of his bounty. As soon as the postman was gone she explained the reason. The envelope contained only a blank sheet of paper, and it had been arranged beforehand that every time her brother sent this she would know he was well, and thus she got all the news she wanted merely by handling the package and giving it back.

This little story set Mr. Rowland Hill thinking. In the first place it seemed wrong that poor people should be tempted into such trickery in order to communicate with one another; then he reflected what a check on business this dear postage must be, and finally began to consider where the chief expense of carrying the letters really lay. The Government had acted on a theory that it was in carriage, and up to that time postage had been regulated by weight and distance. Thus a letter from London to Manchester was charged eightpence if it had only one enclosure, one and fourpence for two enclosures, two shillings for three. Fourpence was charged for sending a letter fifteen miles. But Mr. Rowland Hill thought to himself that the cost of carrying the mail bags could not really be so great, that the expense must lie in collecting letters and delivering them. So, after much thought, he came forward with the bold proposal that the old system should be abolished and letters carried any distance for a penny the half-ounce.

Like almost every other reformer, he was at first laughed at. So many letters would be written, exclaimed Lord Lichfield, the Postmaster-General, the mails could not carry them, and "the walls of the Post Office would burst". Even clever Sydney Smith talked with scorn of the "nonsensical penny-post scheme". But as we have seen in the case of railways, though a new project was sure to be flouted and jeered at, there was at that period no lack in England of men sufficiently open of mind to consider a proposal on its merits, and the "nonsensical penny-post scheme" soon won for itself a strong body of support.

Business men especially were quick to see its possibilities, and from them so many petitions flowed

into Parliament, that after a committee had been appointed, and had reported in favour of uniform charges and stamps for prepayment, a bill was at length introduced. At first the postage was fixed at fourpence, but in 1840 it was changed to a penny the half-ounce.

Just at that time the main trunk railways were being opened, and helped to produce results that have far outstripped even the sanguine expectations of Sir Rowland Hill. In 1839, the last year of heavy charges for postage, about 82,000,000 letters were delivered in the United Kingdom; in 1875 over 1,000,000,000 were delivered; and in 1896 no less than 3,030,000,000. This number includes not only letters, but post-cards, books, newspapers and parcels, and works out to an average of rather more than seventy-seven packages to each inhabitant. In 1837 the average was little more than three to the inhabitant. A curious fact, testifying not only to the use made of the Post Office, but to the spread of education, is that while in 1837 only about $1\frac{1}{4}$ lbs. of writing paper was used per head, the average has now risen to over 12 lbs. per head.

Of the branches of work done by the Post Office a few words may be said. The parcel post was started in 1883, and in the following year 22,000,000 parcels were sent, but this had increased to three times the number in 1896. Some people thought that the railway traffic would be injured by the establishment of a cheap parcel post, but the contrary has happened. It was a welcome discovery to many classes of tradesmen, market gardeners, and others, to find that packages of goods could be sent with almost as much certainty, promptitude, and comparative cheapness as

letters. It stimulated enterprise to such an extent that business flowed over from the Post Office to the railway companies, which, in their turn, began to improve their services and emulate the punctuality of their new rival. The consequence is that they, instead of doing less, have done more business than before. In the year 1883 they received about £3,250,000 for the carriage of parcels, but in ten years this had risen to £4,500,000, and their efforts at improvement make us hope for a greater increase in the future.

One interesting department of the Post Office has nothing to do with the carriage of letters. At the beginning of the century, Mr. Charles Whitbread proposed that the Post Office should open savings banks for the encouragement of thrift among the working classes. It was not till forty years after that the plan was adopted, but the idea was caught up eagerly at once by those it was intended to benefit, and money poured in to the extent of £25,000,000 in 1840, and it affords substantial proof of prosperity that the amount has gone on increasing till in 1895 this sum was very nearly quadrupled. Now-a-days, any one may start an account with a shilling, which may be paid in stamps, so that really any one may begin by laying out a penny on a postage stamp, and saving the stamps till there are twelve of them.

Nor is this the only financial business it deals with. Before the Post Office began to issue money and postal orders, the greatest difficulty and danger attended the sending of small sums. How much this arrangement was needed is shown by the extraordinary number of people who take advantage of it. The figures are so large it is difficult to grasp them. Every year close on 500,000,000 of money orders are issued, representing

very nearly £200,000,000. Just try to imagine the multitude of small transactions which these stupendous amounts imply! We are forced to conclude that the greater part of this business never would have been done save for the facilities afforded by the parcel post and the money order.

HOME THOUGHTS FROM ABROAD.

Oh, to be in England now that April's there!
And whoever wakes in England sees, some morning, unaware
That the lowest boughs and the brushwood sheaf
Round the elm-tree bole are in tiny leaf,
While the chaffinch sings on the orchard bough,
In England—now!
And after April, when May follows,
And the whitethroat builds, and all the swallows
Hark, where my blossomed pear-tree in the hedge
Leans to the field and scatters on the clover
Blossoms and dewdrops—at the bent spray's edge—
That's the wise thrush: he sings each song twice over
Lest you should think he never could recapture
The first fine careless rapture!
And, though the fields look rough with hoary dew,
All will be gay when noontide wakes anew
The buttercups, the little children's dower,
Far brighter than this gaudy melon-flower!

ROBERT BROWNING.

CHAPTER XI.

ELECTRICITY.

IF the application of steam to do the work of man is the most powerful discovery of our time, the adaptation of electricity to our ordinary uses is the most wonderful and striking. Without it travelling by rail would be both dangerous and slow. It enables us to transmit messages under the very sea, so that people with oceans between them may communicate within a space of time that is measured by minutes.

It enables people in distant towns to converse almost as freely as if they stood face to face; it will even bottle up the human voice and keep it for years. At the anniversary of the death of Robert Browning, the poet, a company of his friends heard the familiar accents of his voice repeating words that he had spoken into a phonograph several years before. Had the invention come sooner it would have been possible for this generation to listen to "the marvellous voice" of Sir Robert Peel, and to hear the musicians and actors, the preachers and divines, the statesmen and orators who had passed away ere we were born.

Imagination cannot fail to invest with singular interest the driest recital of what has been done in our days by means of electricity. During the eighteenth century, and indeed far back in ancient times, the

phenomenon of electricity had received attention. The distinction of our day is to have invented plans for making it available for ordinary purposes of life. For a long time electricity merely fitted in with other inventions. It was, for instance, greatly needed on the new railways, where at first there were no means of signalling. Try to fancy what would happen to-day if all electrical appliances were to be taken away from one of our main lines of railway. Express travelling would have to be stopped at once, and the number of trains very greatly reduced; if not the danger would be unendurable.

Yet at first the passenger lines had no proper signals, but had to make shift with flags and discs elevated on posts and pillars. Then in 1841 Sir Charles Gregory designed and put up at New Cross a semaphore such as had already been used for short distance signalling. This semaphore had two arms, one to the right and the other to the left, each arm stretched out in the direction by which the trains approach. If this arm is held right out it means danger; if half inclined to the post it means caution, and if close to the post it means that the way is clear for an approaching train. At night the same warnings are given by means of differently coloured lights. In 1846 distant signals, worked by wire communication from the signal box, were first started in Edinburgh, and in 1852 the Great Northern Railway had all its lines fitted with distant signals of the semaphore type. The safety of modern travelling by rail is very largely due to the semaphore and the electric telegraph.

In the adoption of electricity for haulage, other countries are slightly ahead of us, but this has been due to legislative barriers that were removed in 1896,

the occasion being celebrated by a procession of motor cars between London and Brighton. There is still some doubt as to the comparative merits of electricity and oil for the motor cars, which promise soon to do a part at least of the work at present accomplished by horses. But electricity is used with success for tram-cars and trains.

The idea of conveying messages by means of electricity was in the air as early as the middle of last century, but it was not till 1836 that Cook invented a means of transmitting the letters of the alphabet by the aid of three needles. In the next year he and Wheatstone improved upon this, and in 1840 they produced "Wheatstone's step-by-step letter-showing".

The early experiments had been made on the North-Western Railway between Euston and Camden Town, but the first public line to use this patent was laid from Paddington to Slough, on the Great Western, in 1843. Two years later 500 lines of wire were in use, and in 1846 the Electric Telegraph Company was started.

In the years 1868 and 1869 Acts of Parliament were passed by which the telegraphs were transferred from private companies to the Post Office. The objections to their remaining with the former were the high charges and the imperfection of the service, both as regards the neglect of many large towns and the frequent delays in transmission. By 1888 50,000 miles of telegraph wire had been constructed. A uniform tariff has been established, which at first began with one shilling for twelve words, but this has been lowered to sixpence, with the result that the number of messages has been enormously increased. In 1896 no fewer than 64,500,000 messages were despatched, at an average of $7\frac{1}{2}$ d. each.

The land lines of the world are supplemented by about 32,000 miles of submarine cables, which enable us to hold rapid communication with the most distant countries. A message sent from London to Egypt takes only twenty minutes; from London to Bombay fifty minutes; from London to China 120 minutes; from London to Australia 160 minutes.

The telephone is a more recent discovery for transmitting messages by word of mouth. In 1831 Wheatstone made a beautiful toy which he called a "magic lyre". By it he showed that if the sounding boards of two musical instruments are connected by a piece of pinewood a tune played on one will be reproduced on the other. This was a telephone of a sort, and it was greatly developed by the application of electricity. The man to whom its present commercial importance is due was Mr. Bell, but many others have worked in the same field, and the use of the telephone has been very rapidly extended. In 1876 there were only 200 working in all Europe, but in 1888 there were 20,400 in the United Kingdom alone.

Even from this brief sketch it will be apparent what a great part is played in our existence by this force, whose practical application was unknown to those who lived in 1837. The electric bells in our houses, the electric light in street and public and private buildings, the electric railway and the electric omnibus, the telegraph, the telephone and the phonograph are exclusive products of the Queen's reign. Every day adds something to the list. A German farmer has made a plough that goes by electricity, and a Scotchman on the moor of Rannoch has erected an electric thrashing machine.

CHAPTER XII.

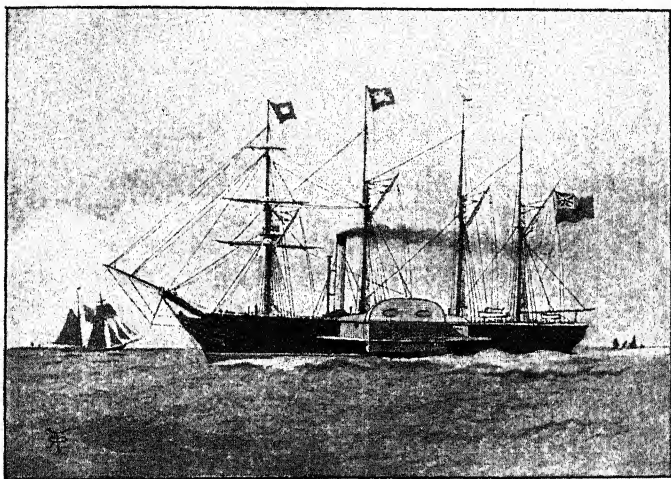
STEAM-SHIPS.

IN the period of repose that followed the great continental war of the last century and the beginning of this the energy of Englishmen appears to have concentrated itself, as it had never done before, on the practical application of science to increasing the conveniences of life. We have seen how the railway was beginning in 1837 to join town to town as they had not been joined before, and the improvement of postal arrangements tended still more to bring the various parts of the country into communication. But still our separation from the rest of the world was as complete as heretofore.

For centuries navigation had been practically at a standstill. The slight improvement made in the build and rig of ships caused little difference to the voyager. Whatever might be the importance of his errand, he had no means of progressing in a calm or against a contrary wind. The Atlantic, crossed so surely and swiftly now, did really divide one world from another. Months often elapsed between the despatch of a mail and its delivery in New York, and the passenger could scarcely guess at the time of his arrival.

As to business between the two continents, it was

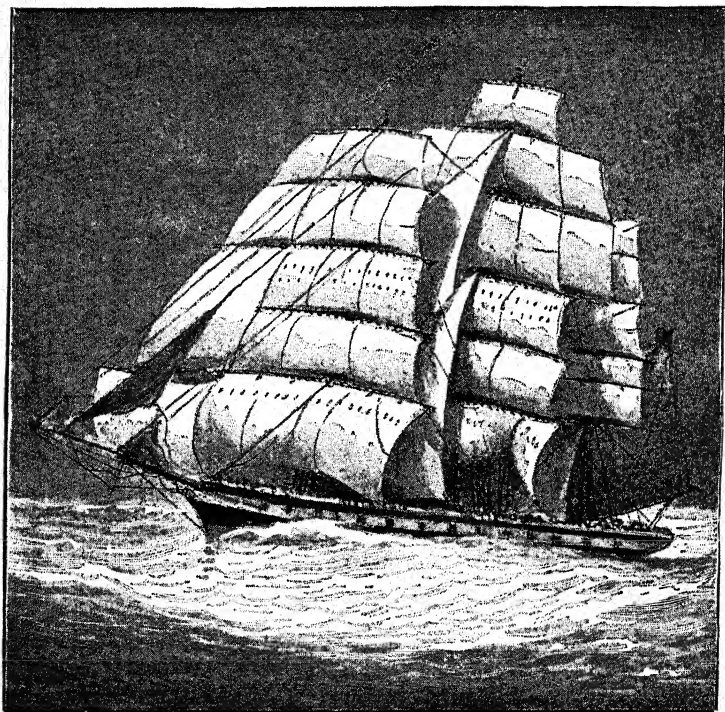
impossible where speed was essential, and hampered and retarded where it was not! The breaking down of this barrier between Great Britain and the outer world constitutes a great, perhaps the greatest, triumph of the Victorian era. Without it, as we shall presently show, progress would have been impossible, for without it means would have been lacking to feed our millions of workers.



THE "GREAT WESTERN," OF BRISTOL, A.D. 1838.

For these reasons the April that succeeded the Queen's accession is a month to be remembered, for one Sunday afternoon there went puffing out of the port of Bristol and down the channel a little ship that was to be the pioneer of a revolution in ocean transport. Its name was the *Great Western*. Four days previously a similar vessel, the *Sirius*, had gone from Cork, so that here we have the beginning of the race across the

Atlantic. Both vessels arrived in New York on the same day, 23rd April, but as the *Sirius* had taken eighteen days and the *Great Western* only fourteen, the latter must be accounted victor.



A CHINA TEA CLIPPER.

From this double event is dated the commencement of the ocean steam traffic. Yet these were by no means the first vessels propelled by the same power that drives the locomotive. Not to go back into re-

mote antiquity, when it is said the Chinese invented a steam-ship, or even to 1543 when a Spaniard produced a machine for driving vessels on water by steam, in the early part of the present century several coasting and inland steamers were running.

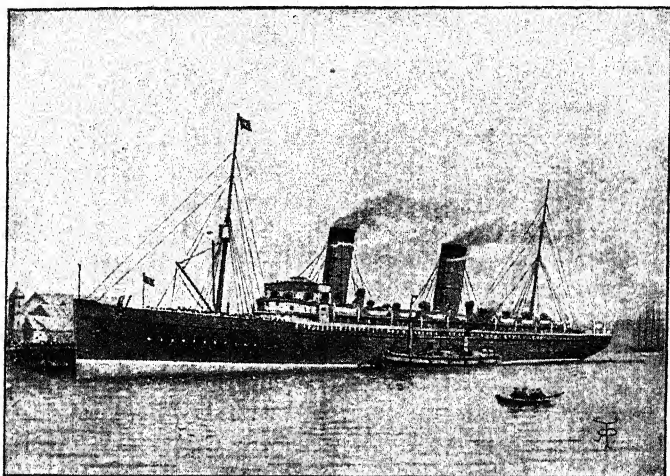
The most famous was the *Meteor*, launched in 1812. It was built by Mr. Henry Bell, an innkeeper with a taste for engineering, and plied between Glasgow and Helensburgh. Four years later the *Hibernia* and *Britannia* began to run between Glasgow and Holyhead. But it was the passage of the *Great Western* and the *Sirius* that finally convinced engineers that it was possible to navigate the ocean by steam, and very soon the project was taken up by men well qualified to carry it through.

And, indeed, it may be said here that there is not in history a generation of Englishmen of whom their descendants have more cause to be proud than those who lived at the beginning of the Queen's reign. Prompt, far-sighted, resolute to the verge of stubbornness, they carried out great enterprises with skill, daring and determination. Within two years after the voyage of the *Great Western*, the Cunard line, to be followed by so many other lines, was established. The first steam-ship to carry her Majesty's mails was the *Britannia*, which in 1840 went from Liverpool to Halifax in twelve days ten hours.

One consequence of the immense traffic to which this improved transport gave birth was a keen competition between rival owners as to who could produce the most magnificent and the speediest boats. We need not give a detailed account of the racing of the "ocean greyhounds". It was begun in earnest in 1874, when the *Britannic*, of the White Star line, made the

journey in seven days ten hours. In 1879 the *Arizona*, of the Guion line, reduced the record to seven days three hours.

At the time when this is written a Cunard steamer, the *Campania*, still has the honour of having made the fastest outward voyage, in five days nine hours eighteen minutes. This was in 1895. And it has to be noted that there is not the same difference between



CUNARD S.S. "LUCANIA".

12,950 tons; 30,000 horse-power; length, 620 feet; speed, $21\frac{1}{2}$ knots an hour

a steamer's quickest voyage and its average as there is in the case of a sailing vessel. As given by the United States Post Office, the average time in which the *Lucania* and the *Campania* deliver the mails is 157 hours and 158 hours respectively. A sailing vessel, the *Red Jacket*, has accomplished 2280 miles in seven days, but it could not be depended on to keep up to a

high average—it is at the mercy of calms and contrary winds.

The improvement made in Atlantic steamers is typical of that which has taken place elsewhere. In May and June of 1896 the London mails were delivered in Adelaide in twenty-six days seven hours by the *Himalaya*. The *Caledonia*, another steamer belonging to the Peninsular and Oriental line, has delivered mails in London twelve and a half days after leaving Bombay, whereas it used to take fifteen days to carry them to Alexandria only.

And it is not merely in speed that gain has been made. The first-class passenger ship of our time, with its electric light and splendid appointments, its luxurious state-rooms and saloons and libraries, its cold chambers and other contrivances for preserving food, is more like an ocean palace than a ship as it was conceived by our forefathers.

But a great political struggle had to be fought ere we could take full advantage of the steam-ship.¹

¹ See Table III. on p. 227.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE WHEAT FEVER.

It would take volumes to trace all the consequences of applying steam to navigation, but an endeavour may be made to indicate a few of the most striking. Naturally, the effect on our food supply comes first. Boys and girls of to-day can scarcely realise, and even their fathers are beginning to forget, that in the time of many yet living a failure of harvest meant hunger and suffering to England. When wheat, as it did several times in the earlier years of the century, rose to near £5 a quarter, and the loaf cost five times what it does now, even the fairly prosperous middle classes were pinched, and the poor labourers were brought close to starvation.

Some time ago the present writer saw an aged peasant gathering the crusts of bread thrown away by a troop of careless school-children. On being asked why he did so, he replied that often when he was young times were so hard he was glad to live on raw turnips or boiled nettles, and the memory of want was so keen that he thought it sinful to waste wholesome food. Before the days of steam-ships, the children of the poor had many a bitter experience of hunger.

There was, however, another reason for those recurrent seasons of famine. During the latter part of the

eighteenth century, statesmen were puzzled what to do about the wheat supply. If wheat was very dear they offered a bounty to those who imported it; if cheap they discouraged importation by duties. Unless farmers got a good price they feared the country would be ruined. About the middle of the century England grew more wheat than she needed, and exported as much as 300,000 quarters a year. Our exportation of corn ceased in 1792, and in 1795, owing to a succession of bad harvests, wheat rose to the extraordinary price of £6 14s. a quarter. The sufferings of the southern peasants were dreadful, but in other districts not so bad, because the people were not in the habit of eating much wheaten bread. In Scotland they used oatmeal, as they did also in the Northern Midlands; at other places bread was made of rye, and in Northumberland of pease-and-barley meal. But still the distress was extreme, and Parliament tried to encourage importation by lavish bounties.

In the beginning of the nineteenth century, and as long as there was war, the price kept up to a very high level, and it is very greatly to the credit of the labouring classes of the period that, though their hardships gave rise to much sullen discontent and anger, they held their passions in restraint when rebellion would have weakened the nation in its struggle with Napoleon. But peace came at last, and prices fell.

To realise what followed it is necessary to understand the England of that time. Out of the condition described sprang a tremendous contest between the landed interest and the commercial, or, as it was nicknamed, the Manchester School—a contest not yet ended. During the war owners and tenants of land profited by the high prices of wheat, and tried to

make the most of them. They had what orre may call a wheat fever. They enclosed commons, ploughed wold and waste, drained moor and bog, even drove the plough through rich old pastures—all in order to receive those tremendous prices offered for wheat.

Many a wide acre of land may still be seen in Norfolk and Suffolk and Essex and Lincoln, on the Cotswold Hills and the Wiltshire and Berkshire Downs, reverting to wild heath, but bearing the furrow mark of the "bull-frogs," as those enterprising farmers were called. To understand the sort of man who was doing this, and also the language spoken by the rustic of the time, you should read Lord Tennyson's "Northern Farmer". This is how the poet, who in the heart of a farming county must in youth and boyhood have been very familiar with such figures, makes the dying old man describe his life-work :—

D'ya moind the waäste, my lass ? Naw, naw, tha was not born then ;

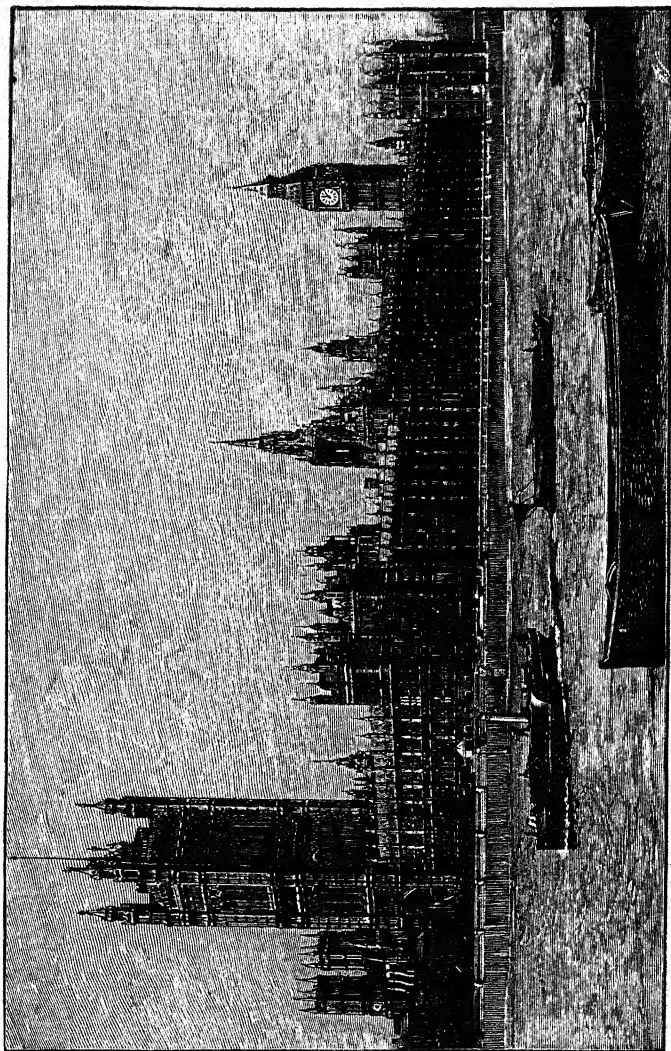
Theer wur a boggle in it, I often 'eärd 'um mysen :

Moäst loike a butter-bump, fur I 'eärd 'um about an' about.

But I stubbed 'um up wi' the lot ; an' räaved an' rembled 'um out.

Dubbut look at the waäste ; theer warn't not feëad for a cow ;
Nowt at all, but bracken an' fuzz, an' look at it now.

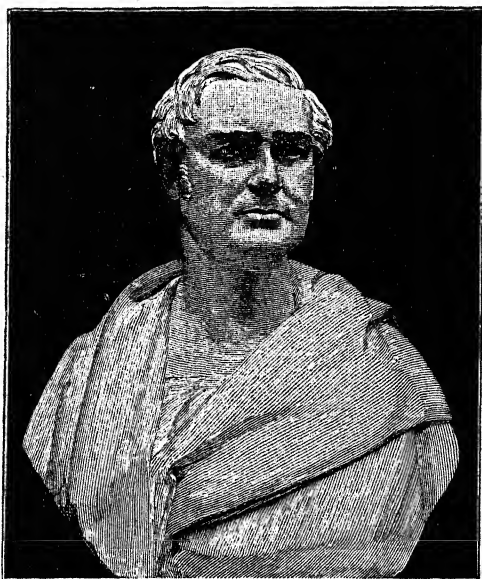
The agriculturists when profit went down thought they were going to be utterly ruined, and in defiance of many warning signals their friends in the House of Commons passed the act of 1815, prohibiting the importation of foreign corn until the price of wheat exceeded £4 a quarter. But the country gentlemen, though a strong force in Parliament, did not recognise the extraordinary growth of trade in England, and that henceforth commerce was to assert and main-



THE NEW HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT Designed by Barry, opened 1852.

tain a supremacy. Neither did they calculate that this use of their power would set people to examine the foundations on which that power was based. Thus began the two great agitations of the century—Reform and Free Trade.

The former of these resulted in the bill passed in 1832, by which the representation of 143 rotten or



SIR ROBERT PEEL.

From the bust by Noble in the National Portrait Gallery.

decayed boroughs was transferred to new and growing towns, and the franchise, that is the right of voting, was extended to the £10 householders in towns and to leaseholders and copyholders in the country. The measure was not secured without a great deal of popular excitement and no little rioting and disturbance.

The repeal of the Corn Laws was a task of longer duration. When the act was passed the Government was warned not only by petition but rioting that it was looked on with disfavour. As it happened, the harvests were bad in 1816 and 1817, and people grumbled more than ever. But there was a strong body of opinion in opposition, and it was not till 1839 that the Anti-Corn-Law League was finally established, though an attempt to do so had been made in London before that and failed.

During the intervening years there was continual argument and controversy, so that the issues became clearly defined. "We are your best customers," the agriculturists said to the manufacturers, "and unless you pay us well for our corn we can have no money to buy your goods; if we even get a little more than it is worth, it all comes to you in the end." "No," replied the other side. "Cheap food makes cheap and efficient labour; you are fighting for a class, we for a national interest." So, with infinite variation did the battle proceed.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE ANTI-CORN-LAW LEAGUE.

At the Queen's accession, this question of abolishing protective tariffs was a common subject of conversation. Circumstances combined to give people a series of object lessons in Free Trade. The year 1836 had been an unhappy one. A hard winter had followed a miserable harvest, and the poor mill-operatives of Lancashire suffered equally with the ill-paid farm servants. Carlyle has described the situation in these memorable words: "The English all sitting enchanted, the poor enchanted so that they cannot work; the rich enchanted so that they cannot enjoy".

Nearly everything was ready for such a burst of commercial activity as had not before been witnessed. Engines were being built and iron roads laid down for transporting goods and rendering our mineral wealth available in the factories; new and better machinery had been invented for the cotton mills; a vastly improved system of postal communication was being planned; great steam-ships were at least in the projector's eye.

The one thing missing was cheap food. It required no great effort of imagination to picture the vast fields in distant lands waiting for the plough, and the ships ready to pour cargoes of grain into our ports. But the dread of hunger lay over the whole land, and the



By permission of Mr. T. Fisher Unwin.

conviction grew that the only way to get rid of it was by "abolishing the bread tax". This was dinned into the ear and shown to the eye. Poles decorated with the big loaf and the little one became the symbol of the agitation. Great gatherings of Free Traders were held in the large towns, processions formed, banquets held, ministers interviewed and other means adopted of rousing the country to demand the repeal of the Corn Laws.

The institution which kept this movement going was the Anti-Corn-Law League, established in Manchester in 1839. To understand subsequent events it must be remembered that this association did not at first attach itself to any particular party. Even the Chartists—so called from the charter or manifesto drawn up at a great Radical meeting at Birmingham in 1837—were not in its favour. At least, though not opposed to the principle of Free Trade, they wished to shelve the discussion till their own point had been gained. Of the Liberal leaders, Lord Melbourne the Premier thought it "the wildest and maddest thing to think of leaving the agriculturists without protection". Lord John Russell sneered at it, and Mr. (afterwards Lord) Macaulay suggested compromise.

The leader of the Free Trade movement was Richard Cobden. He was the son of a yeoman, and partner in a great mercantile business, and had convinced himself of the soundness of his policy by observations made in travel. With unwearied persistence and no small amount of eloquence, he spoke, he wrote, he organised in its favour for years. Inside of Parliament Mr. Villiers annually brought forward a Free Trade resolution, and was gradually educating members to an understanding of its advantages. Cobden was lucky enough to enlist

the sympathies of Mr. John Bright, the greatest orator of his time, and the names of the two will always be spoken of together.

It was not difficult to make a stir in the country when famine and hunger enforced the oratory of the speakers, but the fight in Parliament, of which so many



JOHN BRIGHT.

[Photo. Russell.]

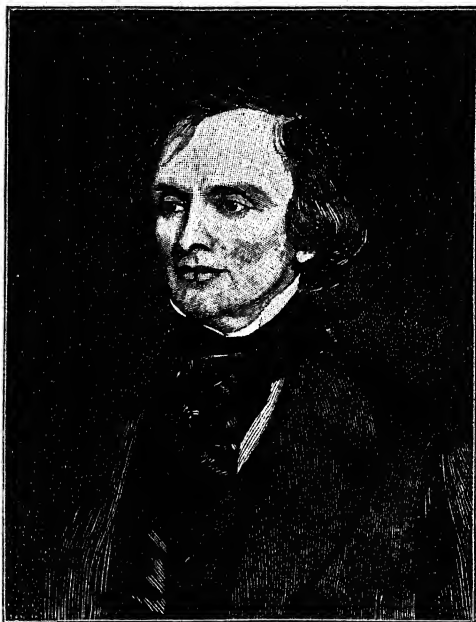
members were connected with land and honestly convinced that Free Trade would ruin agriculture, promised to be long and arduous. But as it happened Sir Robert Peel, the Conservative leader of the Commons, had deeply pondered the question. He was a man of sound, rather than brilliant understanding, a great authority on money matters, and held in the highest respect

by all parties for his honesty and clear judgment. Even as early as 1841 he appears to have been won over to the theory of Free Trade, but he was afraid of the practical difficulties in the way of establishing it.

For some years the question was more or less neglected. Between 1841 and 1845 there were large harvests and as prices fell the first fire of enthusiasm appeared to cool, and the Protectionists seemed to get the better of the argument. "It is not to be denied," Lord John Russell wrote, "that many elections for cities and towns in 1841 and some in 1845 appear to favour the assertion that Free Trade is not popular with the great mass of the community," and the evidence of others goes to show that the country was again becoming indifferent to the argument of the reformers.

But an event occurred that formed the most dreadful object lesson yet given to the country. The year 1845 was a very unpleasant one. In Great Britain the harvest was bad, and in Ireland occurred one of the greatest calamities of modern times. This was the great famine brought about by a failure of the potato crop. At that time the condition of Ireland was extremely wretched. In many districts the "conacre" or "cottier tenant" system prevailed; that is, the labourer got no wages, but was recompensed for his service by receiving a patch of ground on which he grew food for himself and his family. The plots were so small that they afforded the very barest subsistence, and from year's end to year's end the people had nothing to eat but potatoes. As a consequence, the outbreak of the potato disease brought starvation to their doors, and the dullest mind saw the folly of prohibiting the importation of grain to a country desolated by famine; and it was famine gaunt and terrible, and no mere scarcity.

At first the rumour of famine was not credited, or it was reckoned as an exaggeration in England, but as the autumn advanced doubt became impossible, and Peel was quick to see that the time had come for abolishing the duty on corn. But when he explained



LORD JOHN RUSSELL.

From a painting by Sir F. Grant, in possession of the Dowager Countess Russell.

his views to his colleagues in the Ministry he was confronted with opposition.

Meantime a cry rose in Ireland for the right to bring wheat into the ports free of duty, and it seems to have convinced Lord John Russell that he had done wrong

to hover between Protection and Free Trade. In a celebrated letter to the electors of Edinburgh he spoke of the former as the "blight of commerce" and "the bane of agriculture". This letter drove Peel to bring the matter once more before his colleagues, and he found them more reasonable. "A good government is more important than Corn Laws," said the loyal old Duke of Wellington, whose profound good sense always recognised at a crisis that the business of governors is to carry out the wishes of the governed. But Lord Stanley would not agree, and there was nothing for it but resignation. This Sir Robert Peel carried out on 5th December, when he journeyed to Osborne for the purpose. Lord John Russell was asked to form a Ministry, but was unable to do so, and thus it devolved upon Peel after all to settle the great question.

O NATIVE BRITAIN!

O native Britain! O my mother Isle!
How should'st thou prove aught else but dear and holy
To me, who from thy lakes and mountain hills,
Thy clouds, thy quiet dales, thy rocks and seas,
Have drunk in all my intellectual life,
All sweet sensations, all ennobling thoughts,
All adoration of the God in nature,
All lovely and all honourable things,
Whatever makes this mortal spirit feel
The joy and greatness of its future being?
There lives nor form nor feeling in my soul
Unborrowed from my country. O divine
And beauteous island! Thou hast been my sole
And most magnificent temple, in the which
I walk with awe, and sing my stately songs,
Loving the God that made me!

S. T. COLERIDGE.

CHAPTER XV.

THE RISE OF DISRAELI.

WHEN Parliament met on 22nd January, 1846, the greatest excitement prevailed in the country. It had been made known by the *Times* newspaper that Peel was going to introduce a measure for abolishing Protection, and those who considered themselves likely to be injured thereby had called public meetings and protested and passed resolutions.

But the gloom was deepening on Ireland. Plague and famine were at work and the air was full of schemes to withstand them. Subscription lists were opened in London and the provincial towns, and landed proprietors headed them with large gifts. In Liverpool a company of merchants each gave £1000.

The night on which Peel introduced his proposals will ever be regarded as one of the most important in the reign. It was not only the beginning of a new policy, but the starting-point of a strange and interesting career. You can fancy Cobden and Villiers and the other Anti-Corn-Law members beaming with satisfaction as with his marvellous voice the great minister unrolled his plans. You may imagine the satisfaction of Lord John Russell, Lord Macaulay, and the other Whigs who had become tardy converts to Free Trade.

But the Tory squires listened in sullen disapproval.

They considered that their chief had betrayed them; still they might possibly, with the loyalty of their order, have sacrificed their own feelings to a famous leader, but for the intervention of one destined to play a great part in English history.

In the very year of the Queen's accession Benjamin Disraeli had been returned member for Maidstone, but his first speech in the House was at once ludicrous and memorable. His very appearance had called forth laughter, for in an age of dress he was a dandy of the first water. He had on a bottle-green frock coat, a white waistcoat laced with a network of glittering chains, large fancy-pattern pantaloons, and a black tie above which no shirt collar was visible, and ringlets of coal-black hair brushed away from his right temple fell over his left cheek. Think of a man with a tall spare figure, a white face and flashing black eyes, and you may fancy how strange this figure looked to the House of Commons—that assemblage of staid and sober English gentlemen.

He made no attempt to imitate the quiet manner then in vogue, but he turned about and gesticulated like a play-actor, and blurted out clever things and vulgar, was energetic and conceited, and quite careless of restraint. It amused the members, and they laughed and jeered and made noises till the speaker, after continuing for some time with great doggedness and composure, at last fairly lost his temper, and said, or rather shrieked, to the House of Commons words which they afterwards had cause to remember: "I have begun several times many things, and I have often succeeded at last; ay, sir, and though I sit down now, the time will come when you will hear me".

A time had come when this bold prophecy was to be

fulfilled. Disraeli had often spoken since then it is true, but without creating any great impression. Indeed, he had acted like one who trains himself rather than tries to take a lead, choosing easy topics, and dealing with them briefly and clearly. At last, however, his opportunity had come. He saw what the country gentlemen wanted, and rising, attacked Sir Robert Peel with all the force of his eloquence, calling forth cheer after cheer from the Conservative side as he drove home his points.

Put into plain English, his argument was that an honest leader, if his opinions had changed, should have dissolved Parliament and taken the opinion of the people before endeavouring to embody his new convictions in legislation. But he rang the changes on this one idea with the most bitter sarcasm, the deftest wit, aroused to higher flights by the uproar that told how exactly he expressed the feelings of the passionate and disappointed men beside him. Listening to him all the while sat Sir Robert Peel's Colonial Secretary, Mr Gladstone, the member for Oxford University, who was destined to fight many a hard battle with this new leader of the Conservative forces.

It is unnecessary here to follow the course of the debate that followed, or to describe the attacks made night after night on Sir Robert Peel by Disraeli. The Corn Bill was read a third time in May, and was got through the House of Lords chiefly by the influence of the Duke of Wellington. But on the very day on which the Peers agreed to a third reading the Government was defeated on another question, and Sir Robert Peel's great career was brought to a close. Five years later he died from the effects of a riding accident, and was universally mourned.

The best praise that can be pronounced on him is an extract from the speech in which he announced his resignation of office: "It may be that I shall leave a name sometimes remembered with expressions of goodwill in those places which are the abode of men whose lot it is to labour and to earn their daily bread by the sweat of their brow—a name remembered with expressions of goodwill when they shall recreate their exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened with the sense of injustice".

THE HERITAGE OF ENGLAND.

It is not to be thought of that the flood
Of British freedom, which, to the open sea
Of the world's praise, from dark antiquity
Hath flowed, "with pomp of waters, unwithstood,"
Roused though it be full often to a mood
Which spurns the check of salutary bands,
That this most famous Stream in bogs and sands
Should perish, and to evil and to good
Be lost for ever. In our halls is hung
Armoury of the invincible knights of old;
We must be free or die, who speak the tongue
That Shakespeare spake: the faith and morals hold
Which Milton held. In everything we are sprung
Of earth's first blood, have titles manifold.

W. WORDSWORTH.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE PASSING AWAY OF DISCONTENT.

AT last England was in full possession of the essentials to commercial development. Her people were brought into close communication by railway and telegraph wire, her steam-ships began to plough every ocean, and all the countries of the world were free to sell her their products. But before dealing with the immense growth that followed, let us dwell for a moment on one circumstance that lends to this progress an air of something more than greatness, that makes it beneficent as well.

In reading history one is struck by the fact that during the last half-century there has been no great riot or rebellion in Great Britain. Just before the Corn Laws were established, there was a conspiracy similar to many that had preceded it. The Chartist movement very nearly ended in civil war. A little earlier thousands of stackyards had been set on fire in the rural districts. Lord Tennyson has partly described it in his lines "To Mary Boyle":—

And once—I well remember that red night
 When thirty ricks,
 All flaming, made an English homestead hell—
 These hands of mine
 Have helped to pass a bucket from the well.

When the dark nights came on after the harvest of 1830, in Kent, Hants, Sussex and Surrey the sky was reddened with the blaze of stacks, barns, hayricks and farm-houses, and further north such outrages went on for years. In addition, other acts of mischief were perpetrated, such as the destruction of turnip and potato fields, the breaking down of fences, and many outrages that spoke of a bitter hatred to the farmers.

These outbursts are not difficult to explain. Until within the last forty or fifty years the very poor did not share in the prosperity of their employers. During the first twenty years of the nineteenth century when the average price of wheat was nearly £5 per quarter, the labourer received no benefit from the high price. It had been the same in the last portion of the eighteenth century. Farmers bid against one another for farms in order to profit by the high prices of grain, and so enriched the owners of land; but population was increasing so quickly there never was any scarcity of labour, and wages underwent little change. It was the same with the Lancashire cotton-spinners, who had profited by the discoveries of Arkwright. The machinery which was in the end to extend the range of employment and increase wages, began by throwing people out of employment. It is pitiable still to read accounts of the working classes of those times, the hovels in which they lived, the wretchedness of their food and dress. Many of the riots and outrages were the doings of men made desperate by famine.

By keeping all this in mind it will be possible to see how increased trade has benefited the poor even in those cases where the money wage is not largely increased. Farm labourers, for instance, have not made as much progress as other workers as far as wages are

concerned. In 1893, when careful inquiries were made into their condition, a wage of 12s. a week was found to be fairly common. Out of that sum, at least a fourth was spent in bread. It was found that a Hampshire farm labourer, earning 12s. a week and having a wife and two sons working—in addition to four young children—kept the whole family at the rate of £1 2s. a week, of which 7s. 6d. was for bread.

Going to another part of the country we find the following case. In Wiltshire the weekly expenses of a family of nine came to 17s. 6d., of which 5s. went for bread. The father got 10s. a week, but the wife and two boys were earning something. Let us take one more instance, this time from Hereford. Out of a total weekly expenditure of £1 2s., 5s. went for bread, the man's wages being 13s., added to by the earnings of his wife and eldest boy.

About sixty years ago the wages of farm labourers were from 7s. 6d. in Dorset to a little more than 10s. in Essex, Sussex and Surrey, and 13s. in Yorkshire, so that many ploughmen of to-day appear to be earning very little more than their grandfathers did. But yet they are nearer being comfortable, because, in their own homely expression, the shilling goes so much farther.

In the first twenty years of this century the average price of wheat was £4 18s. 6d. a quarter. You have but to think of that fact to understand the mutterings and grumbings, the fires and riots, that told of misery and hunger. Out of their small wages it was absolutely impossible to get enough to eat. Well, in the year 1893 the average price of wheat in the United Kingdom was only £1 6s. 4d. a quarter, and during the two succeeding years it dropped several shillings. In other words, the article upon which the labourer spends most money had

in sixty years dropped to one-fourth of its cost—a shilling in 1895 could buy four times as much wheat as a shilling in 1835.

The first conclusion to be drawn from this is, that people are very much better fed now than they used to be. During the years between 1831 and 1850 the average annual consumption of wheat by each inhabitant of the United Kingdom was 280 lb., and between 1881 and 1889 it was 384 lb. But as in almost every class of workmen there has been a great advance of wages, it means that there is a larger margin to spend on clothes, furniture, and other things that make life more comfortable. When it took nearly all the earnings of a poor man to provide sufficient food to keep him and his family alive his surroundings were wretched. Alike in town and country the housing of the working classes was miserable; one-roomed dwellings were very common even for large families, and decency and health were equally impossible. Diseases were more common than now and were more deadly, as the ill-drained, unhealthy dwellings produced the bad conditions under which they most easily spread. Scarcely any money was left over for dress, so that it had to be of the cheapest and commonest materials. Let it be added that ignorance prevailed to an extent that seems incredible now, and it will be impossible to wonder that discontent often showed itself in a reprehensible form.

See Table II. on p. 226.

CHAPTER XVII.

CHANGES IN SOCIAL LIFE.

THOSE who have grown up during the latter part of the nineteenth century can scarcely understand how much things have changed since the beginning. Let us look at two aspects, distance and time. Before railways were thoroughly established, towns that we now consider close together, Stockton and Darlington for example, had scarcely any intercommunication. The only method of effecting an exchange of goods was either by canal or cartage, generally the latter, because great as had been the improvement in our waterways, they passed only a small proportion of towns. This had a most injurious effect upon business, especially in the case of country towns. Each of these, to a far greater extent than is now the case, depended for its food supply on the surrounding district, and prices were far more "local" than they could possibly be now.

Suppose, for instance, that the potatoes in the Midlands failed this year, but that the crop was abundant in the north and south, though the growers of potatoes would suffer it would make little or no difference to the consumer, because merchants would pour in supplies from a distance till the prices all over were about the same. On a large scale this has frequently occurred in regard to wheat. Since 1879-80, the worst agricultural

year in the last half-century, an English crop has in a number of harvests been much below the average ; so much so that had a similar deficiency occurred in earlier days a famine would have ensued. Something like this did actually occur in 1847, when wheat rose to £5 2s. a quarter, or nearly four times the average price of the last seven years.

What this meant to the community at large, and especially the poor, may be judged from the fact that it was found necessary to pinch and save even in the palace. The Queen herself wrote on 18th May, 1847 : " The price of bread is so high that we have been obliged to reduce every one to a pound per day, and only secondary flour to be used in the royal kitchen ". Similar experiences were but too common in the days of George III. and George IV. When the rich had to stint their food it may easily be understood that the poor had often to go without.

In our day, however, the only complaint heard is that of the farmers that wheat is too cheap and that they get so little for it that it does not repay cultivation. The reason lies in our immensely improved communication. Crops have never been known to fail all over the world at once, and there are clever men of business always on the look-out for any local deficiency. If they see there is going to be a scarcity, then they know a market is ready for those who have an abundant return.

The telegraph, the cable, the steam-ship, the locomotive are set to work, and from Canada or Argentina, Russia or Australia, wherever they have more than is needed and are anxious to sell the surplus, cargoes are sent to cope with the scarcity. It is an arrangement that acts admirably in the way of making food cheap in a time of peace, but in the event of the

exporting countries being closed to us by war matters would be worse than they were before, since there are more mouths to be fed, and English farmers annually devote a smaller area to wheat growing.

On a small scale, as on a large one, the cheap and easy freedom of intercourse tends towards bringing prices down to a low and uniform level. If, for instance, goods were dear at Manchester and cheap in London, the London dealer would in a few minutes learn the fact by telegraph, and his interest would be to reach the better market at once. He would probably sell largely to some Manchester dealer by telegraph. The transaction is exactly like what takes place between two pools of water standing at different levels. As long as they are completely shut off from each other one remains high and the other low, but join them and the two bodies of water begin, one to rise, the other to sink, till they are at the same level.

The Queen's reign has been very fruitful of inventions for saving time, and this is true of small things as well as great. One example may be quoted. If the sticks and paper and coals are well laid, lighting a fire is now only the work of a second, but before there were any matches how much time and ill-temper must have been wasted on a tinder-box? It contained flint and steel and touch-paper, and supposing everything was in its place and in apple-pie order it took some time to make a spark set the match burning and then fan it into a flame, but if, as will happen sometimes in this imperfect world, the tinder-box had not been kept as it should have been—perhaps the steel had got mislaid, or the flint had a bad edge, or the old rag had not been well dipped in nitre, and the maid, if she was slovenly, probably got out of temper, and

made matters worse—then a morning was half lost in lighting the fire. The lucifer match is a great time saver.

We have already seen what long and weary hours were lost by those who had to travel, hours that were practically cut out of a man's life. News travelled so slowly that it must have been impossible to act on it quickly. Along the main coach lines rumour flew more swiftly than it did in out-of-the-way districts. The late poet laureate when the battle of Waterloo was fought was a boy of six, living with his brothers and sisters at the quiet rectory of Somersby in Lincolnshire. It is said that more than a month had passed before they heard of Wellington's great victory! This may, of course, be only a tradition of the village, but the very existence of the story serves to show how slowly news was spread in the early part of the century.

Till railways were established families were quite cut off from such of their members as had ventured into a distant town. In case of death or an accident absent friends could not be summoned as they are now. The members of the human society were shut off from one another.

But there was a bright side as well. People loved their homes far more than they do now, and they kept up with great glee the merry old games and customs belonging to Christmas and Easter, and to St. John's Eve and Hallowmass, so that life was far from miserable. And the splendid energy, determination and enterprise with which the English people of this time undertook and carried out so many great changes make us too proud of them to speak slightly of the conditions under which they lived. The beginning of the reign was a time of strong men not only in science and engineering, but in statesmanship, literature, and every field wherein intellect tells.

CHAPTER XVIII.

WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN 1837.

SIXTY years ago there was very little of that care for the welfare of children which is so marked a characteristic of the present time. In country districts boys and girls had a task set them in the fields at a very early age. We have seen that George Stephenson was sent out to "herd kye" for twopence a day as soon as he was seven. William Cobbett belonged to an earlier time, yet the childhood he pictures in the following extract may be regarded as common in rural districts for many years after 1837. The writer has frequently heard old farm servants give very similar accounts of their early years.

Cobbett says: "I do not remember the time when I did not earn my own living. My first work was driving the small birds from the turnip seed, and the rooks from the peas. When I first trudged a-field, with my wooden bottle and my satchel swung over my shoulders, I was hardly able to climb the gates and stiles, and at the close of the day getting home was a very weary task. My next employment was weeding wheat and leading a single horse at harrowing barley. Hoeing peas followed, and hence I arrived at the honour of joining the reapers in harvest, driving the team and holding the plough. We were all of us

strong and hard-working, and my father used to boast that he had four boys, the eldest of whom was but fifteen years old, who did as much work as any three men in the parish of Farnham."

This does not read unpleasantly, and Cobbett wrote it in pride, for he properly considered it a noble thing to work and be connected with workers. About the year 1840 many people shared in this view, but, nevertheless, in 1843, a commission was appointed to inquire into the employment of women and children in agriculture. The state of things revealed was abominable. The condition of respectable families, such as that of the Cobbetts or the Stephensons, gave no indication of what went on elsewhere.

At that period, for instance, the gang-system was in full swing. A gang-master was one who collected a band of men and women, of boys and girls—many of the children being under eight years of age. He engaged them at a very small wage, and then contracted with a farmer to do a certain quantity of work for a round sum. On the morning when the job was to be begun he transported them to the scene of labour, but at night they had to shift for themselves, and generally resorted to some old barn or disused outhouse, where too often the hours that should have been devoted to sleep were given to scenes of dissipation. It was not till 1867 that these gangs, which were most common in East Anglia, were brought under the restraint of wholesome regulations, and it was decreed unlawful that boys under the age of eight or girls under twelve should be employed in them.

The home was little better than the gang. The same commissioner reported a desperate state of things in the southern counties, where the cottage

accommodation was most insufficient. In one small house twenty-nine people lived and slept. Holes in the roof and windows stuffed with rotten rags were of common occurrence.

Nor was this overcrowding confined to the south; Canon Atkinson, of Danby, has described a state of things equally bad in Yorkshire. After giving many examples of insufficient housing, he says: "The dimensions of the one room in which the family had to live, work, cook and sleep were just about 18 feet square," and he adds the remark of a woman brought up in such a house: "Ay, there was not much room for fancy there". "Fancy" in her mouth meant the simplest dictates of decency.

So the boy or girl was, perhaps, after all just as happy scaring birds out in the pure air, and if you think what squalling and discomfort there must have been when in dark nights the family were all gathered in one small room, you will not wonder that too often men made things worse by escaping to the ale-house and wasting their small wages over the pipe and the jug.

The mention of dark nights reminds us how much dearer fuel and light were before the railways were fully established. The rural cottager of 1837 would have thought it a sinful waste to burn candles unless something important had to be done. If, as often happened, two or three met together in the long winter nights the flickering wood fire round which they sat and gossiped gave the only light.

Other children were still worse off than the sons and daughters of the agricultural labourer. The pit boy was badly used. Of one who afterwards became a leader among working men and a member of

Parliament, it is related that he was born at St. Helens in 1846, and was only seven years old when sent to earn his living. For twenty years he worked in the mine; never seeing daylight in the winter from one Sunday evening to the next Sunday morning. The same story could be told of many thousands of living men, but it was only here and there one had courage and energy enough to surmount his difficulties and make a mark in the world.

And what awfully hard work it must have been down the mines in 1837, when children were harnessed to sledges like donkeys, and women had to carry burdens of twelve or fourteen stone in weight up steep inclines, or clad in begrimed trousers of sacking, drag on all fours a truck along some underground gallery. The barbarism of the middle ages stretched far into the nineteenth century as far as mining was concerned. And at those rare intervals when the pit boy or woman came to the top, there was little to improve them there. The pit houses were every bit as bad as the farm cottages, and the pit village was wild to the point of savagery.

An old joke in *Punch* illustrates the manners of the time more graphically than could be done by many pages of description. Leech, who made the drawing, represents two burly miners, one with pipe in mouth and hands in pockets, the other with a shovel on his shoulders and a bull-pup at his feet. A dandy of the period, with cigar and tall hat and open waistcoat and chequered trousers, is approaching as if to ask a question, when the following takes place:—

First Polite Native—"Who's 'im, Bill?"

Second ditto—"A stranger!"

First ditto—"Eave 'arf a brick at 'im!"

To understand the advance that has been made it is necessary to understand something of the brutality, ignorance and dissipation that prevailed in the mining districts. In towns the child of the poor was little better off. The one-roomed house was as common in the city as in the village, and the factory child was nearly as ill-treated as the pit boy. Perhaps the urchin at the farm had least to complain of after all !

BACK TO ENGLAND.

Yonder, at last, the glad sea roars
Along the sacred English shores !
There lies the lovely land I know,
Where men and women lordliest grow ;
There peep the roofs where more than kings
Postpone state cares to country things.
And many a gay queen simply tends
The babes on whom the world depends ;
There curls the wanton cottage smoke
Of him that drives but bears no yoke ;
There laughs the realm where low and high
Are lieges to society,
And life has all too wide a scope,
Too free a prospect for its hope,
For any private good or ill,
Except dishonour, quite to fill !

COVENTRY PATMORE.

(By permission.)

CHAPTER XIX.

THE PRESENT CONDITION OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN.

It would occupy too much space were we to describe in detail the various steps by which the conditions of women and children have been improved. All that can be done here is to indicate certain striking points of contrast between 1837 and 1897. The result will be to show not only an increase of material comfort, but a decided step towards the equalisation of advantages between different classes in their start for the race of life.

You see that the boy of 1837 was very much handicapped. He had few chances of receiving education, he was ill-dressed and poorly nourished, the surroundings of his home were squalid and miserable, and at a very tender age he was sent out to work. The circumstances were so well calculated to cramp the mind and enfeeble the body that we wonder how any one was able to overcome them.

Children of the humblest parents are more favourably situated now. Not only has the state provided means for schooling them, but it insists on their attendance, and has freed their parents from the payment of school fees. In 1833, when Government first turned its attention to the matter, elementary education was in the hands of two agencies, the British and Foreign

School Society and the National Society. Parliament that year voted £20,000 to aid in building schools. The magnitude of the advance may be judged from the fact that for the year 1896-7 on account of public education alone Parliament voted the sum of £7,122,213, and the total education vote for Great Britain and Ireland was over £10,000,000.

Probably the mere figures convey little meaning to the reader's mind. They mean broadly that the state to-day is sparing no trouble to see that every child has an opportunity of receiving instruction, and public opinion is in favour of more rather than less pains being directed to that end.

The little farm boy has other advantages besides that of free schooling. It is not legal now to send him out at seven to frighten the rooks with his wooden clapper and shrill young voice, though an arrangement is made whereby he may afterwards work for a certain time in the year and go to school in the winter months. And his home is very much more attractive. Few indeed are the one-roomed houses, and the new cottages bewilder the old rustics with their grandeur, or what they call such in their simple way. Some, indeed, prefer the rickety makeshifts of other days. In a few parts of Wales the women still bake their bread under a clay covering instead of an oven, and do it by no means badly. Occasionally, too, may be seen the clay floor, the large hearth with a pot on one side and an oven on the other, and a cosy chimney nook where the white-haired grandfather sits and gossips of his youthful days.

Outside, too, the sanitary inspector has been at work. In the middle of the century, country villages were often as unhealthy as towns, and were sometimes visited

by diseases that spread from house to house and killed off nearly all the inhabitants. No wonder! There was often a cesspool at the very door, and the "mid-den," as northern peasants called the heap of ashes and house refuse, was seldom so far away that a woman could not stand on the threshold and fling the contents of her shovel on it.

Drainage was as bad as it could be, and the water supply abominable. If the village possessed a well, no pains were taken to save it from pollution; if not, the pitcher had to be filled at, and the water carried from, some slow river or brook that in summer became as stagnant as a ditch and received filth from every hamlet on its course.

These evils have not been swept away so completely as we might desire, but still the country village of to-day is a paradise compared with what it was sixty years ago.

Down in the mine, too, a revolution has been effected. Women are no longer permitted to work in the tunnels, and such haulage as has yet to be done by manual labour is given to stout lads, instead of women and young children. But it has been very greatly lessened. About 1850, the system of haulage was rapidly changing, tram lines being laid from the chief galleries to the main shaft, and being either run by men, or by horses, donkeys and mules. Instead of being carried up by ladders, or a sort of spiral staircase, as women had to carry the coal long ago, it is now lifted up, truck and all, by steam power. Steam till lately was used for a great deal of the haulage, but recently it has been giving place to electricity as a motive power.

The consequences of these and other improvements

have been to do more than humanise the lives of pit-folks; while the individual worker's effectiveness has been increased, the deaths by accident are decreasing. The death rate in 1860 used to be 3.38 for every 1000 workers, and in 1895 it was 1.635. The tons of coal raised per man was 280 in 1860, and had risen to 380 in 1890. We thus have absolute proof that coal-mining is now performed under much healthier conditions, and still with greater efficiency.

Legislation has taken a still more active part in protecting women and children engaged in town factories. It has called into existence a large army of inspectors, whose business it is to see that the times of working as laid down by Act of Parliament are not exceeded, and to prevent the oppression of children on the part of those who would make them work at too tender an age. Much attention has been paid also to the housing and the sanitary arrangements of those engaged in mills and factories. In short, though the good work has not yet been completed, we have reason to be thankful for the progress made.

CHAPTER XX.

THE CHEAP BREAKFAST-TABLE.

THE history of our tea-trade is singularly interesting. Cobbett used to call tea "cat-lap," and advised working folk to drink milk instead of it. Many others have uttered the same opinion, but every year English people become greater tea-drinkers. Even in 1837, when it was very dear according to present notions, as a nation we were the greatest consumers in the world, and as it has become less expensive more and more is consumed. Sixty years ago the price was between 4s. and 5s. a pound, and Great Britain bought 32,000,000 lb.; now you may buy a pound of fairly good tea for 1s. 6d., and in 1895 we used over 216,000,000 lb.

But more curious than this huge demand is the transfer of our custom from China to India. This is one of the most remarkable events in the history of commerce. Up to 1873 China still sent us over 80 per cent. of the tea we used, and in that year we imported only 23 lb. from Ceylon. But the business grew by leaps and bounds till the modest 23 lb. from Ceylon of 1873 had in 1895 swollen into the gigantic quantity of over 74,000,000 lb. As late as 1859 India sent us no tea at all, and now we get 100,000,000 lb. annually from her. Thus it will be seen how enormously the trade from India and Ceylon has in the

short space of a quarter of a century shot ahead of that of China. To realise what the figures mean you must think of the increased employment given to the Queen's subjects, the flow of capital to India and Ceylon, and the increased value of land there.

Another breakfast-table article that has become very plentiful and cheap is sugar. Young people of to-day cannot remember the time when it was scarce, but they may gain some idea of it from books, or even from picking up old sugar-basins, which often have printed on them some such words as: "Be canny with the sugar". The words tell you at once this was a basin for poor folk, but even the middle classes were very sparing with sugar.

A book well worth reading for its descriptions of life at the beginning of the reign is Mrs. Gaskell's *Cranford*. Under this name she so faithfully recorded the doings of genteel society at Knutsford, in Cheshire, that the inhabitants were quite angry. Well, here is a short extract from her writings to show how they valued sugar at Knutsford in days when the Queen was young and Charles Dickens was winning fame as the author of *Pickwick*. "In a few minutes tea was brought. Very delicate was the china, very old the plate, very thin the bread and butter, and very small the lumps of sugar. Sugar was evidently Mrs. Jamieson's favourite economy. I question if the little sugar-tongs, made something like scissors, could have opened themselves wide enough to take up an honest, vulgar, good-sized piece; when I tried to seize two little minikin pieces at once, so as not to be detected in too many returns to the sugar-basin, they absolutely dropped one, with a sharp clatter, quite in a malicious and unnatural manner." Is it imaginable that any one would

be concerned now-a-days about a morsel of sugar more or less, especially at a party where there was china and plate and the company included a lady of title?

The greater cheapness of sugar and its enlarged consumption are due to a variety of causes. It used to be manufactured entirely from the sugar-cane, and many a great fortune was made by Jamaica planters in the old days of slavery. There grew up huge factories in Bristol, London, and, later on, Liverpool. But the slave trade was abolished in 1807, and slavery itself in 1833. Lord John Russell's equalisation of the sugar duty in 1846 brought new lands into competition—and lastly it was discovered that sugar could be extracted from beet, a plant that grows freely in Europe, and Germany, France and other countries applied the bounty system to encourage its growth. In some instances they gave as much as £2 a ton to foster this new industry. The production of beet-sugar has now outgrown that from canes.

The effects as far as they touch Great Britain are as follows. First, there is such an abundance of cheap sugar as never was known in our previous history. Secondly, our sugar refineries are almost closed, particularly as regards Greenock, the town to which this industry had moved in recent years. Thirdly, the plantations in our West Indian colonies are ruined, and the owners have had to turn their attention to the cultivation of fruit and vegetables.

A fourth consequence is, however, as important as any of the others. Owing to the cheapness of sugar a great impetus has been given to the manufacture of jam, sweet biscuits, confectionery and preserves in this country. Instead of importing only 79,000 tons of fruit as we did in 1860, we imported 290,000 tons in 1890.

We buy apricots from France, and oranges and lemons from Italy, Spain and Portugal, and send them all over the world in the shape of jam. Moreover, besides buying so much more largely from foreign countries, we are beginning to cultivate far more fruit at home, the quantity of land devoted to fruit in the United Kingdom having well-nigh been quadrupled since 1837.

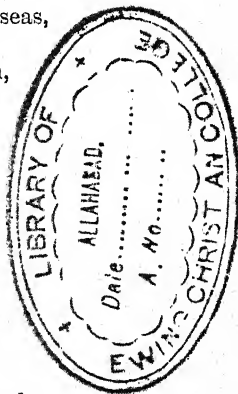
DOES HAUGHTY GAUL ?

Does haughty Gaul invasion threat ?

Then let the loons beware, sir,
There's wooden walls upon our seas,
And volunteers on shore, sir.
The Nith shall run to Corsincon,
And Criffel sink to Solway,
Ere we permit a foreign foe
On British ground to rally.

O let us not like snarling tykes
In wrangling be divided ;
Till slap come in an unco loon
And wi' a rung decide it.
Be Britain still to Britain true
Amang oursels united ;
For never but by British hands
Maun British wrongs be righted.

ROBERT BURNS.



CHAPTER XXI.

OUR FOREIGN FOOD SUPPLY.

THE result of the many great inventions and improvements of the Victorian era has been such a growth of trade as the whole world had never witnessed before. Yet it did not follow immediately upon our adoption of Free-Trade principles. It was not till the repeal of the Navigation Act in 1849, that we began to assume the place of the great sea-carriers of the world. For a time, indeed, it seemed as if the ship-building industry were about to be transferred to the United States, where wood was at once more plentiful and convenient. As late as 1860 that country ran us very close indeed, there being in that year a difference of only 250,000 tons in the vessels carrying the British and the United States flags respectively. After the introduction of iron vessels we went rapidly ahead, till in 1895-6, the total shipping tonnage of the United Kingdom was over 13,000,000, whereas that of the United States was only just over 2,000,000.

Still more gradual was the increase of those huge imports of food with which Great Britain is fed. The growth of our meat supply is in itself a kind of romance in figures. The inhabitants of the United Kingdom are better fed than those of any other European country, and the average consumption of meat per head has gone

on increasing for the last sixty years, till it is now 109 lb. per head, as compared with 77 lb. in France and 64 lb. in Germany. But at the beginning of the reign, and till the year 1842, the country had to produce its own meat, as the importation of live animals and fresh provisions was forbidden.

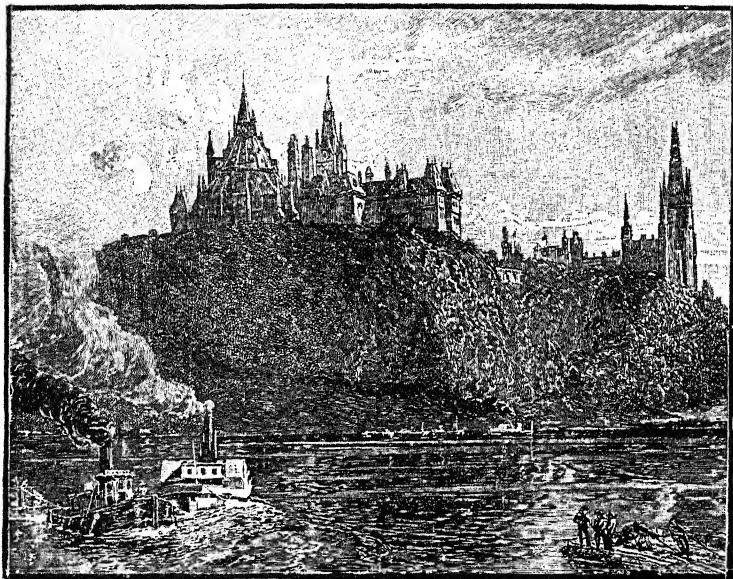
In the year 1846, live cattle were admitted to our ports free of duty, and have been so ever since. Even under the most favourable conditions, however, a long sea-voyage causes sheep and oxen to lose weight, and in stormy weather they suffer almost as much as human beings. It was plain, therefore, that a saving would be effected were means discovered for transporting dead meat in a fresh and wholesome state.

Long ago, a chemist named Appert had found out that if meat or milk were heated to a certain temperature and then sealed, so that no air could get in, it would keep for any length of time. It was not known that decay was really due to living organisms, which were destroyed at the degree of heat required for preservation, but Appert's invention was very freely applied. Meat was cooked and sent over here in large quantities. Tinned beef, tinned mutton and tinned tongue began to rival the trade in living animals.

This invention acted very well for a time, and a great deal of cooked meat is still sent to us, but it was known that cold had the same preserving power as heat, and this led to the discovery of the refrigerating chamber. An engine of seventy horse power serves to refrigerate a chamber containing 150 tons of meat, and consumes 50 tons of coal in a voyage of forty days.

The extent of the trade that sprang up after this may be judged from the fact that Australia and the River Plate send 60,000 tons of frozen mutton into

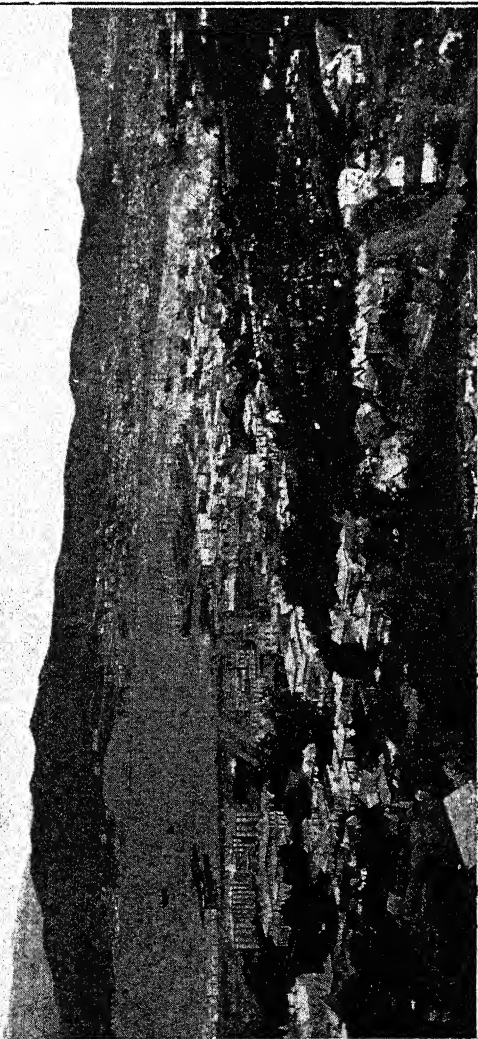
Europe annually. And every year the United Kingdom buys from abroad live and dead meat to the value of £24,000,000. Nor is this all. The method has been applied to many other kinds of produce, even to fresh milk and cream, to rabbits and poultry, and fruit and



PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA.

vegetables. In this way the produce of the whole world has been brought into our markets.

It is instructive as well as amusing to try to realise what far-distant toilers combine to furnish the food of even a plain-living and poor town labourer. For breakfast he probably has tea which the coolies of Ceylon planted and dried. To grow the wheat from which his



WELLINGTON, NEW ZEALAND, LOOKING SOUTH-EAST.

bread comes, some English colonist may have ploughed and sown and reaped on the shores of Lake Winnipeg. His rasher of bacon is from 'a pig fed and slaughtered at Chicago. At dinner he has a bit of mutton fed in New Zealand and sent over frozen, and the apples in his dumpling come from California. For his tea Danish girls churned and made the butter, or if he prefer jam, the fruit was grown by Norman peasants and sent to an English factory. Does he have an egg? The hen that laid it is cackling in some French barnyard.

Should he desire to have an extra Sunday dinner, he has a choice from many countries. There are frozen hearts and tongues and kidneys, rabbits and chickens and ducks from Australia, hares from Russia and Sweden, geese and turkeys from the continent; there are fresh apples and pears from Tasmania, grapes from Algeria and oranges from Florida.

His father or grandfather in the year 1837 had to be content with fare at once humbler and more expensive. It was impossible for him to buy the white bread used so freely and thoughtlessly now. According to the report of an early Agricultural Commission, the bread of poor people in the western counties was made largely from potatoes; in Wales turnips were used for the purpose. Indeed, it would take long to describe all the miserable substitutes for the wheaten loaf invented by people in distress. For other dishes it was necessary to depend wholly on the produce of the country, one might say the produce of the man's backyard, for after buying as much bread as kept him from starvation, he had no money left to market with. If he could keep a pig, he had bacon; if not, he had to do without. His fruits and vegetables were strictly limited to what he could grow.

In dwelling upon the miseries of the poor at the beginning of the Queen's reign, however, we must not let ourselves think that because they were not so well clothed, schooled and fed as people are now-a-days, because they could not travel about in railway trains or steamships, did not write letters and could not afford postage, therefore they were an inferior class of people. The truth lies in the opposite direction. Never were the English people stronger and more energetic. That can be proved in many ways. Wellington drew his recruits for the Peninsular War mostly from the half-starved agricultural classes, and they made brave and splendid soldiers. Those navvies who did the hard work of laying down the railways were as able workmen as England ever produced.

And out of the poorest ranks sprang some of the intellectual giants of the day. We have seen that George Stephenson the great engineer was born amid ignorance and poverty. William Cobbett, whose death occurred a year or two before the Queen's accession, belonged to a class as humble. Thomas Carlyle, whose great book *The French Revolution* was published in the very year in which Victoria was crowned, also sprang from the people, and knew what hunger was in his youth. It is a tribute to the strength and vigour of the time that so many examples of commanding ability should have surmounted its drawbacks.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE PROGRESS OF MEDICAL SCIENCE.

EVERYBODY who is fond of reading old plays and novels has noticed how the physicians used to be laughed at. Many, like Dr. Sangrado, in *Gil Blas*, said: "It is an error to think that blood is necessary to the preservation of life; one cannot bleed a sick person too much". With fine irony Le Sage tells us how by dint of copious bleeding and much drinking of hot water "we brought the old canon in less than two days to the point of death".

Our own Henry Fielding, in one of his novels, gives an excellent picture of the English country doctor of the eighteenth century. "I was once, I remember," said the doctor in sham scientific terms, "called to a patient who had received a violent contusion in his tibia, by which the exterior cutis was lacerated, so that there was a profuse sanguinary discharge, and the interior membranes were so divellicated that the os or bone plainly appeared through the aperture of the vulnus or wound." Like the other, he bled his patient. Medicine was, in fact, the happy hunting-ground of quacks, who tried to disguise their ignorance by a free use of "high astounding terms".

So much has been done in the course of the Queen's reign to extend medical knowledge, and thereby reduce

suffering, that a large book might be written thereon, but here we must be contented to point out two or three great discoveries that have had an incalculable effect in staying the progress of disease.

First and foremost comes the wonderful discovery of anæsthesia. The word is from the Greek, and means without feeling, or without pain. It was on 30th September, 1846, that Dr. Morton, of Boston, United States, after many experiments upon himself and the lower animals, succeeded in drawing a tooth from a patient whom he had caused to inhale the vapour of sulphuric ether, and was thereby put into a condition in which he felt no pain from the operation.

As early as 1800 Sir Humphrey Davy, who had found the pain of toothache allayed by inhaling laughing gas (nitrous oxide), had suggested its use in surgery, but nothing came of it till Dr. Morton and another American, a surgeon-dentist named Wells, brought it into practical use. In this country it was soon taken up, especially by Sir James Simpson, who, however, preferred chloroform to ether as the agent for producing anæsthesia.

To over-estimate the importance of this step is impossible. The relief to patients, though, perhaps, not the most important result, was extraordinary. Many accounts are on record of the horrible scenes that occurred when the patient had, with all his senses about him and in cold blood, to suffer under the knife. Imagination refuses to picture what took place after battles on sea or land, the torture of probing for bullets, and the amputations.

But the effect on surgery was deeper than the immediate relief of pain. A humane operator under the old system could not help being in a hurry. It was with

him a matter of urgent importance to shorten as much as possible the torture of his patient. This very haste stood in the way of the quiet and careful examination so necessary for success. Many operations, possible enough otherwise, were not attempted just because a



LORD LISTER.

human being could not endure the agony of them. The use of anæsthetics at once gave the surgeon more time for his work, and enabled him to deal with parts of the body that he previously could not touch.

Another and equally important discovery was loom-

ing in the distance. Surgeons had not yet found a satisfactory method for dealing with what is called a compound fracture. A simple fracture is one in which the bone is broken but the skin remains intact; it is named a compound fracture if both bones and skin are broken by a wound that offers a way of communication between them. If only the bone were broken the parts could be set, and if they were kept in a good position the danger of their not healing was very slight, but when the skin was broken inflammation was so likely to set in that one of the safest surgeons of the time gave it as his opinion that it would be better to cut off the limb without attempting to save it in cases of compound fracture.

Now there was at the time a very clever surgeon, named Lister, a native of Essex, though a professor in Glasgow, whose mind was fixed on the idea that this class of hurt might be dealt with.

A great French chemist had discovered that the cause of mischief in wounds was the presence of the tiniest of living creatures, and Professor Lister came to the conclusion that if he could dress the wound with something that would kill them he would be able to treat a compound fracture in just the same manner as a simple one. He found that the use of carbolic acid would keep the wound quite free from animal life, and since this discovery all kinds of wounds have been cured that were previously considered hopeless, and much pain and suffering have been saved.

This was the famous antiseptic treatment with which Lord Lister's name will always be associated.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE PREVENTION OF DISEASE.

As long as surgeons were afraid of compound fractures, and all operations had to be conducted without the use of chloroform, many diseases now open to treatment were regarded with hopelessness and despair. It was death alone that could relieve the sufferer. But with anæsthetics and the antiseptic treatment it became possible to explore the most delicate parts of the human body, and the medical records of the last twenty years teem with cases that would have been incredible to our forefathers. Previously it was almost certain death to open the stomach and bowels for the purpose of removing diseased portions, now it is done with comparative safety. Even the skull has been opened and diseased parts of the brain removed.

Yet in 1896 a discovery was made that promises to give still greater aid to the surgeon. For more than a quarter of a century doctors have had an idea that an intense light might be transmitted through the less dense portions of the body. Sir Benjamin Richardson as far back as 1869 read a paper on the subject at Norwich, and a few years later a Vienna doctor mentioned a case in which an eruption of small-pox had been made evident by photography before anything appeared on the surface. Professor Röntgen's

famous discovery of the rays now associated with his name more than fulfilled any expectation aroused by these experiments.



THE RÖNTGEN RAYS.

[From photo., London Stereos. Co.]

These rays have the power of penetrating many substances through which ordinary light cannot pass

yet they produce the same effect as light upon a photographic plate. As they pass through the soft flesh and are obstructed by the denser bones it is thus possible to obtain by this means a picture of the bony framework of the human body. Their use in surgery may perhaps be best illustrated by example. In the spring of 1896 a young man met with an accident and broke his leg. He was taken to a hospital where it was set in the usual manner, and in due time he came out expecting to walk almost as well as usual. But to his sorrow he found that he could only do so with an ungainly limp that threatened to remain with him all his life. Under the circumstances it was suggested that he should have the limb examined by means of the Röntgen rays in order to discover the cause of the limp, and he went to the well-known principal of a college of science for the purpose.

A photograph was duly taken with the following result. No doubt the reader knows that there are two bones in the leg, a large one called the tibia and a smaller one named the fibula. Well, it soon became apparent that by the accident both bones had been broken. The doctor, however, had only noticed one which he had set, and the fragments of the other left to themselves had joined together in an irregular way and were the cause of lameness. Upon understanding this, the young man went back to the hospital and had his leg re-broken and properly set with the result that he now walks as well as ever he did.

This is only one of many hundred instances that could be given. The exact position of foreign substances in the body such as bullets, needles, etc., is now easy of discovery. It will happen sometimes that when a leg or arm is injured such a swelling sets up that the

surgeon is unable to say whether there is a fracture or only a dislocation. This can be determined by the help of these wonderful rays. As a means of reducing human suffering their value is beyond question.

These then are the great positive advances in medical science made during this wonderful era; the use of anæsthetics in ordinary medical practice by Sir James Simpson; the researches of Pasteur leading to Lord Lister's antiseptic treatment, and discoveries such as those of Koch who among other things found out the microbe of cholera, and lastly the discovery of the Röntgen rays.

Yet it has to be remembered that these are only the most outstanding and striking facts. At no other period of history has scientific curiosity been so active and so largely rewarded. When he who was beyond all others the poet of the reign sang at its commencement of "the fairy tale of science" even his imagination could not have foreseen what the coming years would yield.

Now let us turn for a moment from the interesting and romantic fields of discovery and give some attention to the growth of a less striking and more homely, yet none the less important, principle. To deal cleverly and promptly with disease when it comes is of great importance, but an old proverb says prevention is better than cure, and this has been a guiding rule with us for many generations.

The occurrence of a plague or famine used to be regarded as a special scourge sent by Providence. Few people realised the absurdity of surrounding themselves with the most insanitary conditions and then blaming Providence for the result when the disease arrived. In 1853 when cholera began to appear in Edinburgh a deputation was sent to Lord Palmerston suggesting that

a national fast should be appointed. His answer shocked them at the time, but it was full of common sense and contained a truer piety than that of those who proposed a fast. It was to the effect that they should mind their drains and that if the sources of disease were allowed to remain in towns they would "infallibly breed pestilence and be fruitful in death in spite of all the prayers and fastings of a united but inactive nation".

The policy thus pointed out has been acted upon. Cleanliness is a first essential to health. It has been promoted by care as to the disposal of sewage, a more thorough testing of drains, and a multiplication of baths and washhouses. A wholesome diet is of equal importance, and so the water-supply has been looked into and measures taken to prevent the sale of tainted meat and vegetables. Fresh air and exercise hardly count for less and so towns have been encouraged to obtain parks and open spaces for purposes of recreation; wider streets and roomier houses have been insisted on and the evils of overcrowding, though not fully overcome, have been met and grappled with.

If in spite of all this an infectious disease does break out those afflicted are carefully isolated. In fact it has come to be understood that the sanitary officer and the medical officer of health, whose business it is to report upon any unhealthy conditions, in taking measures to prevent disease are doing work as important as the physician who undertakes its cure. A consequence is that not only are outbreaks of disease less frequent but the average man is healthier and lives longer than he did sixty years ago. The sum of enjoyment is largely increased by a sane, wholesome and healthy method of living.

CHAPTER XXIV.

BATTLESHIPS.

THE last sixty years have witnessed a constant series of changes in the shape of warships. Until the beginning of the Queen's reign the same models had, with slight changes, been followed for centuries. Compare a picture of the *Great Harry* built by Henry VII. with Nelson's *Victory*, and it will be seen that although many improvements had been invented they were only in the way of development. Since Trafalgar was fought a complete revolution has been effected. The "wooden walls of England" have become obsolete. If they had not we do not know where material would have been found to construct the great navy required for the protection of the empire and its enormous commerce.

To build the *Marlborough* no fewer than 6068 loads of timber were required, and it has been calculated that it would take seventy-six acres of land to grow the requisite number of oak-trees. It takes an oak from 140 to 160 years to come to its full growth, so that it is difficult to estimate the vast quantity of land that would have been needed to produce wood for our battleships. Even if other timber had been employed it would have been necessary to obtain it from abroad.

When the Queen came to the throne our old "three-decker" was still the typical ship of war—the last built

was called the *Victoria*—and much discussion went on among naval officers as to the practicability of using steam. Most of them scoffed at “tea-kettles,” as they nicknamed the new vessels with which the Admiralty was experimenting. The first war in which steamships were used was that in Syria in 1840, and the commanders were directed to keep them well out of battle and use only their long range guns, it being feared with good cause that the cannon balls would play havoc with the paddles.

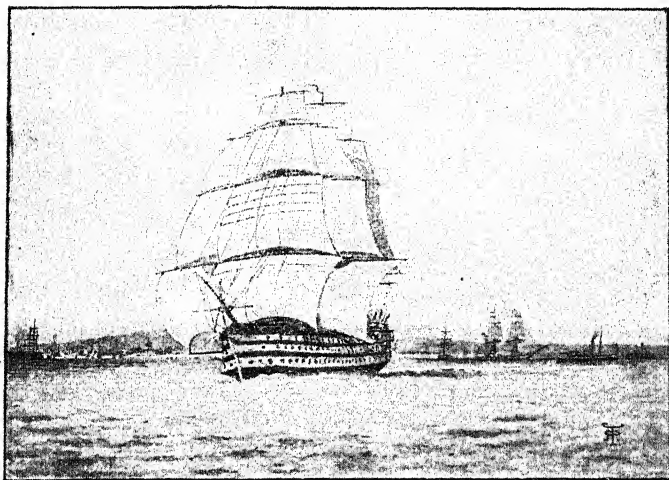
In the chief event of the war—the bombardment of Acre—it did not pass without notice how useful the steamers were, not only by the destructiveness of their shells but by the help they gave to other ships, and the rapidity and ease with which they moved.

Paddle steamers had been employed for chasing slave-dhows during the war with China in 1839, but it was not till the efficiency of the screw propeller had been demonstrated that a radical change began to be effected.

A curious story is told about the improvement of the screw. During the thirties when Mr. Pettit Smith was trying to adapt it to practical purposes, the screw was really a screw, but very soon it was discovered that four fans were just as effective as the entire thread. It happened, however, that while one of the early-built vessels was being tested in Stokes Bay she ran aground. To the surprise of everybody, when got off her power of speed was found to have been increased, and on investigation it turned out that one of the fans had been broken in the accident. Afterwards a mishap occurred to another fan, and the vessel ran better still. It was thus shown by pure chance that the best screw was that with the two fans now in use.

The next step in evolving the modern battleship

dates from the Crimean War. At the bombardment of Sebastopol in 1854, the sailing ships were towed into position by steamers. Napoleon III., however, noticed how badly the old-fashioned wooden ships suffered from the shot of land batteries, and in 1858 he had *La Gloire* built—the first armour-plated war frigate. Just about then, too, Whitworth and Armstrong succeeded in producing guns of far higher penetrating power



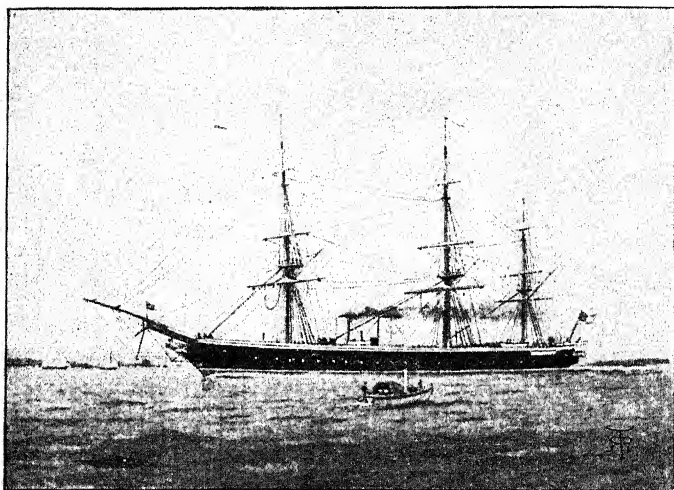
H.M.S. "DUKE OF WELLINGTON," 1854 A.D.

than any previously known. Wood, it was thought, could withstand any kind of round shot that was likely to be invented, but when the new conical-shaped steel projectiles were found capable of going right through the strongest oak barrier and even penetrating iron it became apparent that the old style of ship would be useless for defence.

At that period the country was proud of its navy.

And in 1869 alone no fewer than seventeen ships of the line had been built or adapted. But the necessity for having them iron-plated—and they were steel-plated before long—rendered this armament useless.

The first English iron-clad was the *Warrior*, launched from the Thames ship-building docks in 1861. She is a fine-looking and very swift vessel, carrying 900 tons of

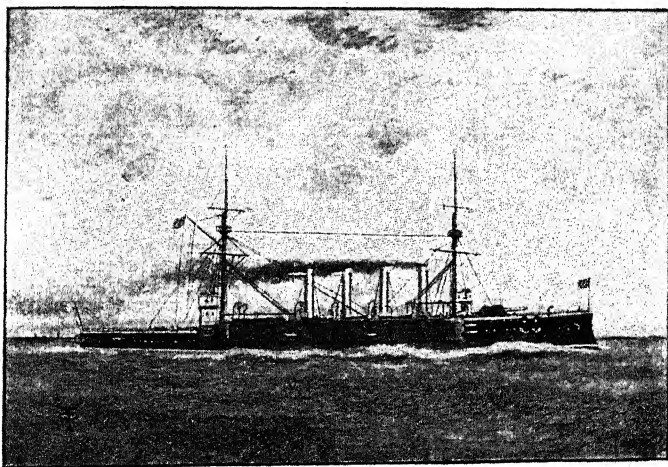


H.M.S. "WARRIOR," THE FIRST BRITISH IRONCLAD.

coal—only enough for five or six days, however—and cost £376,000. Nevertheless, many weaknesses were soon discovered. The armour-plate of her sides was $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick, but it was found that a 35-ton gun could from a distance of five miles send a shot through it, while the same thing could be done by an 18-ton gun at 4600 yards, and a 12-ton gun at 2600 yards. Then her bow and steering gear were unprotected, so

that though the *Warrior* showed an advance, she was far from giving entire satisfaction.

In the *Minotaur*, the *Agincourt* and the *Northumberland* the engineers tried to remedy these defects while retaining the *Warrior's* speed. Proceeding on the same lines, improvements were effected in several succeeding vessels, and then came one of those events that gave a new turn to the construction of warships.



H.M.S. "NIOBE," 1897

In 1861 began the American Civil War, caused by the secession of the Southern States, and in the course of its progress one or two things happened to show how the new iron-clads would do in action. The result was to discredit the steam-frigate as a warship. Belonging to the Confederates was an iron-plated steam ram called the *Merrimac*, which at one time was deemed invincible. When attacked by the *Congress*

and the *Cumberland*, steaming up to the former she delivered her fire with such effect that the frigate retreated. Next she turned towards the other, rammed into her bow, fired, backed out, returned and repeated her attack till the *Cumberland* sank, while the *Merrimac* and its crew had received no injury. But the victor was afterwards challenged and compelled to run by the *Monitor*, the first steam turret ship ever used in battle.

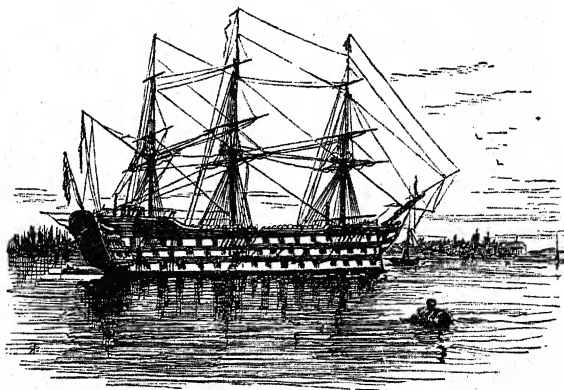
It was this vessel that gave our engineers a model for the great ocean monsters turned out during recent years and of which the first were the *Bellerophon* in 1866 and in 1869 the *Devastation*, the *Thunderer* and the *Dreadnought*.

One may judge of the progress made by a few facts about the *Devastation*. Her hull is protected by 12-inch steel plates, her turrets by 14-inch plates while her guns, of which she carries six, are able to penetrate 6-inch armour at a distance of three miles. She is fitted out for a long voyage, as she can carry 1600 tons of coal or sufficient for a journey of over 9000 miles.

The first of eight new cruisers under construction was launched 20th February, 1897, and a brief description of her may give the reader an idea of what a ship of this kind is like:—

The *Niobe* is 435 feet in length between perpendiculars, with an over-all length of 463 feet. The breadth over sheathing is 69 feet, and her moulded depth to the upper deck 39 feet 9 inches. The displacement is 11,000 tons. The hull of the vessel is constructed of Siemens-Martin steel, the heavy external framing of the ends, stem, stern-post, and propeller brackets, and the rudder frame being, as is usual in sheathed vessels, phosphor bronze castings. The protection consists of an armoured deck of steel plating 4 inches thick, which

extends the whole length of the vessel. She has coal capacity for 2000 tons. The armament is of a most powerful description. There are sixteen 6-inch quick-firing guns, twelve 12-pounder guns, three 3-pounder guns, two 12-pounder boat and field guns, and eight 4.5-inch Maxim machine guns. An ammunition passage is arranged on each side of the ship below the protective deck. There are three torpedo tubes. The conning-tower, from which the vessel is steered and directed when in action, is placed forward, and is built of Harveyed steel armour, 12 inches thick. She is lighted throughout with electricity, the lights numbering about 850. The total crew will be 718 men.



NELSON'S SHIP, THE "VICTORY".

CHAPTER XXV.

TORPEDOES, MINES, SEARCHLIGHTS, AND
TORPEDO DESTROYERS.

OF all the war-like inventions of the last sixty years the torpedo is the most destructive and the most ingenious. Its invention dates from the American Civil War, but not till some years later was the idea taken up and brought to a high degree of perfection.

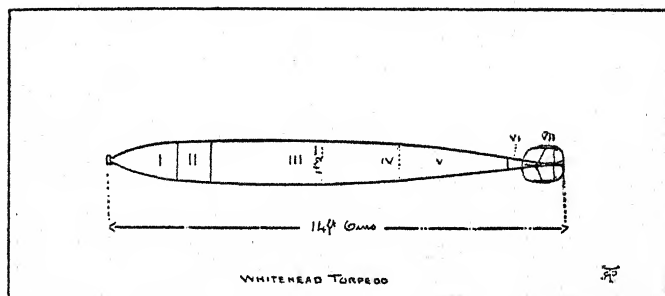
About 1863 Captain Lupuis, an officer in the Austrian navy, formed a plan by which a small fireship propelled either by steam or clockwork might be sent against an enemy's ship and exploded by means of an automatically discharged pistol.

The Austrian naval authorities refused to take it up on two grounds. In the first place the steering was untrustworthy and in the second a better motive power was required. To help him to overcome these difficulties he happened to apply to an Englishman named Mr. Whitehead, at that time acting as manager to a large engine factory at Fiume. Mr. Whitehead was a very clever man and he soon discovered that Captain Lupuis' plan had little practical value, but it set him thinking on his own account, and after working at the subject for two years he succeeded in producing the first Whitehead torpedo.

He greatly surprised the experts for he had kept his

experiments a profound secret and had carried them out with no help save that of his little son and one skilful workman. The Austrian Government gave him £15,000 for the invention, but as they did not buy it outright he made an offer to England and after due trial it was adopted in the British Navy. Since then he has produced many improvements, and though three forms of torpedoes are in use, the Whitehead holds the chief place.

Many a sea-side reader has no doubt often noticed the



I. Gyroscopic magnet II. Secret chamber III. Compressed Air IV. Machinery V. Rudder

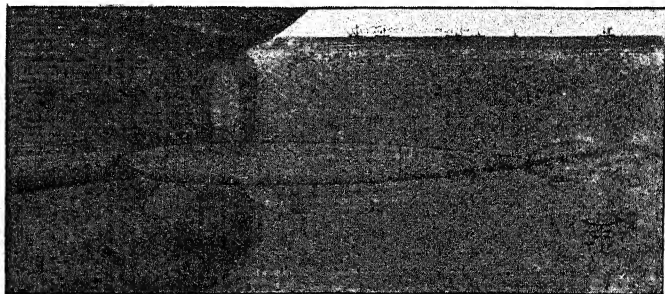
VI. Rudder gear VII. Tail Propeller

dingy torpedo-boat in harbour, and seen the instrument itself or perhaps had its use explained, but there are others who have not and who may be glad to have a brief description.

In shape then a Whitehead torpedo is something like a cigar and in length it is from 14 to 19 feet, and as many inches in diameter at its thickest part. The material out of which it is made is bronze or phosphor steel. But of course it is within that the ingenuity is displayed. What would be found there in the case of a torpedo ready for action? First of all

then in the head of the torpedo is a charge of gun-cotton or some other strong explosive sufficient to blow up the largest ship. The next thing you would desire to look for would naturally be the machinery for igniting it. At the end may be seen the point of a rod that passes through the explosive. This is, as it were, the hammer of the gun. On the torpedo striking against any solid body the rod is driven back against a detonator which explodes the charge.

Two essentials have now been found, the explosive and the means of firing it, but they would be useless



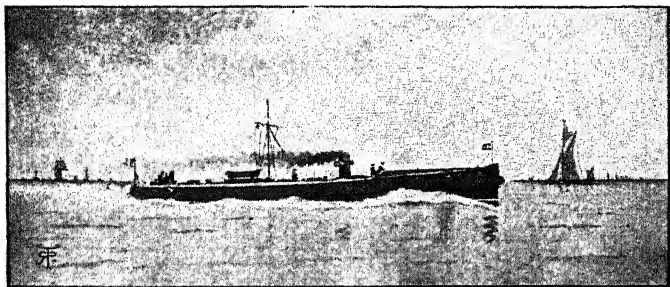
A TORPEDO ATTACKING A SHIP NEAR THE PROPELLER.

if there were no method of causing the torpedo to travel through the water, for it may well be supposed that on an enemy's ship a keen look-out would be kept for any one approaching with this marine "infernally machine".

The apparatus is ingenious and even beautiful, the torpedo being propelled by two three-bladed screws on the same principle as a steamship is. It is by means of compressed air that these are worked. In the torpedo is a box or chamber made out of the finest Whitworth steel, into which preparatory to action air has

been forced to the enormous pressure of 1350 lb. to the square inch. The escape of this air causes the revolution of a shaft, that in its turns sets the propellers in motion. Behind the air-chamber is the "balance-chamber," where the steering apparatus is fixed, and there are four rudders to keep the torpedo at a fixed depth. The latest and most improved torpedo can travel at the rate of about thirty miles an hour for the distance of a little over a thousand yards.

But instead of giving a further account of the details, it will be better to quote the account of an actual battle



A FIRST-CLASS TORPEDO BOAT.

in which the torpedo was used. It is by an officer of the *Ting Yuen*, one of the Chinese ships destroyed in the war with Japan.

"The torpedo attack," says the officer, who was an Englishman in the Chinese service, "which had such dreadful results for us, occurred at about four o'clock in the morning, a short time after the moon had set. Alarm rockets from our guard-boat to the south of Itau were seen. Presently firing took place from some of our ships. We ourselves opened fire, but what the object was I could not distinguish. After a time we

ceased firing, and just then I saw a dark object, probably about half a mile away. Fire was opened on it, and I ran to get a better view. Through my glasses I saw a double-funnelled torpedo boat coming end on for us on our port beam. When she was about 300 yards off she turned hard a-port. As she turned I saw that we had hit her badly, as a lot of steam was to be seen. A few seconds after she turned, we were hit on the quarter. The shock was a heavy quivering one, such as I should imagine an earthquake to be like. The sound of the explosion was a loud, dull thud. A column of water dashed on board, and there was a faint, sickly smell from the explosion."

This is what seems likely to be the future style of naval warfare. Both vessels were destroyed, several of the crew of the torpedo boat being scalded to death by steam after a Chinese shot had struck the steam-pipe in the boiler-room. This was at the mouth of the Yalu River. On the open sea it will be more difficult for a torpedo boat to approach or to hit the mark with precision, but obviously to an island country a defence by means of torpedoes, submarine mines—which one might call stationary torpedoes—and searchlights is of the utmost importance.

They render an invasion of England, if not absolutely impossible, at any rate so difficult and dangerous that he would be a very reckless commander indeed who ventured his warships in the Thames, the Clyde, the Severn, or the Forth.

Whenever a new weapon is invented some one tries to discover a new defence, and at our naval manœuvres many plans are tried to deal with the torpedo. Some vessels are fitted with steel nets, so that the machine may go off when it touches them and before reaching

the ship. The searchlight is employed for discovering the approach of a torpedo boat, and the torpedo destroyer is a fast little vessel to be employed for purposes of capture. No doubt other and more effectual expedients would be devised in actual warfare. At an emergency—though we all hope it will be long in arising—the clever engineers and mechanics who have taken the places of the brave old salts of old will no doubt show themselves as bold and daring as their forefathers.

CHAPTER XXVI.

THE ARMY AND NAVY.

It is every year more fully recognised that the safety of Great Britain depends on her navy, and it has been greatly increased since the launching of the *Thunderer*. Countries, such as France, Germany, Austria, Russia, which have a line of frontier on land, are obliged to spend vast sums on armies and fortifications. They are, as a matter of fact, crushed down by the cost of their soldiers, and by the system of conscription by which youths are taken away from their callings and professions, just when their application should be most diligent, in order to undergo a period of military training.

Great Britain depends entirely upon voluntary enlistment for her soldiers, and has not found it necessary to maintain a standing army equal to those of differently situated powers on the Continent. Counting the reserves, militia and volunteers, as well as the regulars, this country could place in the field about 600,000 men, as against the 1,315,000 of France and the 1,492,000 of Germany. But if the total land forces of the British Empire were included, over 1,000,000 soldiers would be available. The strength of Great Britain, however, lies in her ocean girdle. She is a sea power with vast and distant possessions, and a mercantile marine whose

white sails or black funnels are to be seen wherever there is salt water for the sun to shine on. To hold our own in war if attacked, to protect those fleets of peaceful traders, and attend to interests as wide as the world itself, it is necessary that this country should have a navy as strong and efficient as modern science can make it.

Already we have briefly run over the chief points in its development. To sum it up and bring vividly before the eye the vastness of the change, we may quote a comparison made by Lord Armstrong between Nelson's old ship *Victory* and the new *Victoria*. He put it in this way: "Nelson's heaviest shot was 68 lb., but the *Victoria's* weighs 1800 lb.; his broadside consumed 325 lb. of powder, that of the *Victoria* 3000 lb. He required one man to every 4 tons, but now we can do with one man to 17 tons." But it has to be remembered that other nations can build quite as fine ships as we can, and unless we are well ahead of our neighbours we still are not safe. How to know this is really a difficult matter. In an army you may count heads and make a rough comparison by mere numbers; in the navy numbers count for very little—it is efficiency that tells. Of what use would a whole Spanish Armada be against a modern gun-boat armed with modern cannon?

Thus, to say that in 1889 Great Britain had 373 battleships, France 348, and Russia 391, does not really tell us much. A closer comparison has been made by dividing the vessels into classes. In December, 1895, Great Britain had nineteen first-class battleships, and had ten in the course of construction—a first-class battleship being defined as one not more than twelve years old, of at least 6000 tons and thirteen

knots speed. France which comes next to us as a naval power had fourteen such ships and four building ; Russia thirteen and four building, and these were far in excess of any other power.

It is not necessary and would be confusing to go through all the different classes, the port-defence vessels, and armour-protected and unprotected cruisers, sloops, gun-boat, and torpedo craft, as the exact figures are liable to change at any time. At present Great Britain easily holds her place as the greatest sea power in the world, but she has always to take into account the possibility of having to confront a combination, and it would not, therefore, be safe for her to rest content with a bare supremacy.

At the same time although it would be imprudent to neglect the warnings of history and allow ourselves to be caught unprepared there is good reason to view with dismay the chance of such an outbreak. No great sea-battle has yet been fought with modern engines of war, but imagination shrinks from trying to picture the scene of a conflict. What a responsibility would rest upon the commander seated in his armour-plated conning tower and directing the motions of his vessels by means of signals !

He is in the centre of a palace of steam engines, for nearly everything is done by machinery, and his tactics are not at all those of Nelson, Hardy, Collingwood and the old commanders. What they knew as seamanship he is quite ignorant of. The manœuvring for position, the constant changes in the position of sails, the keen knowledge of wind and weather on which they prided themselves are of little account to him. He touches a button and his ship advances or turns ; his huge engines of war belch out their deadly contents.

Although there has been no great naval battle during the Queen's reign battleships have been used on a few occasions. In 1895 the Sultan of Zanzibar died, and Said Khaled, a claimant to the throne, seized the palace and threw 2000 men into it. Zanzibar, it should be remembered, is an island off the east coast of Africa which used to belong to Germany, but in 1890 England received it in exchange for the useless islet of Heligoland at the mouth of the Elbe. It became therefore our business to restore order. The *Racoon* and the *St. George* arrived in the harbour, and Admiral Rawson ordered the usurper to haul down his flag by nine o'clock next morning. He refused, and, after the women had been removed to a place of safety and foreign residents warned, fire was opened, and in forty minutes the place was reduced to ruins.

A more important operation had been conducted in July, 1882, when owing to the insurrection of Arabi Pasha it became necessary to bombard Alexandria, but this will be mentioned again when we come to deal with "our little wars".

CHAPTER XXVII.

LORD WOLSELEY AND OUR LITTLE WARS.

It is scarcely possible to think of our little wars without recalling the name of the present Commander-in-chief, Lord Wolseley, who has been so closely associated with them. He has seen a great deal of soldiering, as he was born in 1833 and entered the army when only nineteen years of age. Twice at least he has been severely wounded, once in the Burmese War of 1852-3, and again in the Crimean War. He saw a great deal of active service in the Indian Mutiny and in the subsequent war with China. In 1867 he commanded the Red River expedition to quell a disturbance that had arisen over the transfer of the Red River settlements from the Hudson's Bay Company to Canada. Colonel Wolseley declared his mission to be one of peace, and Riel, the insurgent leader, finding himself without followers, offered no resistance. It was then that the name of the district was changed to Manitoba.

A more difficult task was set him in 1873. The Ashantees are a warlike race of West African negroes, with whom the British settlers have had trouble since the beginning of the century. Under their cruel king Koffee Kallalli they were attacking our friendly allies the Fantees, and threatening to spread rebellion among

all the native races. Colonel Wolseley, then Sir Garnet Wolseley, was appointed governor of the colonies on



LORD WOLSELEY.

[From photo. London Stereosc. Co.]

the west coast of Africa, and sent out with troops to Cape Coast Castle to suppress King Koffee. It was

an undertaking to test the very qualities in which the general excels, *viz.*, calculation, forethought and precision, for unless the war could be begun and ended in the cool season the English soldiers were certain to die from fever. Sir Garnet carried the affair through with exactitude. After a few skirmishes he met and defeated King Koffee, entered Coomassie, and forced the Ashantees to accept our terms, one of which was a provision that they should abolish human sacrifices. Sir Garnet had sailed from England in September, 1873, and he was back with his work done in March of the next year.

Zululand was the scene of his next exploit. It is in South-east Africa, not far from Natal. In 1872 Cetewayo came to be king by a method common among savages—he murdered all who were between him and the Crown. But though cruel he was both brave and clever, and organised a strong army. He was also very proud, and replied with defiance when English representatives remonstrated with him for his frequent outrages on missionaries. Upon his refusal to hand over the ringleaders in one of these disgraceful affairs, Sir Bartle Frere sent him an *ultimatum*, and shortly afterwards Lord Chelmsford with a small force crossed the Tugela, which divides Natal from Zululand.

Now occurred a great calamity to the British forces. Lord Chelmsford had gone on before, fighting and clearing the way for a further advance. At a place called Isandula, about forty miles from Rorke's Drift, he had left a guarded camp and a convoy of supplies. This was surprised by a force of 20,000 Zulus and literally cut to bits. About 837 were killed, and the supplies of waggons, oxen, guns, ammunition and stores fell into the hands of the enemy. Two brave young lieutenants, Melville and Coghill, after

a gallant fight tried to make off with the British flag, and sprang with it into the Tugela, but were wounded and drowned.

News of this disaster was carried to Rorke's Drift, where two other lieutenants, Chard and Bromhead, were with eighty men. These two young soldiers were not at all daunted by what they heard from the dusty, blood-stained, terror-stricken fugitives; at any



THE RELIEF OF RORKE'S DRIFT.

rate they determined to make a fight of it. Hastily they erected a barricade with the first things that came to hand, bags and biscuit tins as it happened, and they had scarcely finished when they were surrounded by 4000 fierce Zulu warriors who, mad with their

previous victory, at once began a furious attack. But they met with a stubborn resistance. Six times did the horde of savages push their way within the barriers, and six times they were driven back with fixed bayonets. This went on all night, and once some of them crept to the rear and set the hospital on fire. At dawn even the brave hearts of the little band sank within them, for they saw what appeared to be new hosts of the enemy arriving, but their relief may be imagined when these were found to be their own friends, the soldiers of Lord Chelmsford. So they were relieved, and the enemy fled, but the new-comers counted the bodies of 351 Zulu warriors lying about the scene of the fight.

These events happened about the end of January, 1877, and in May of the same year Sir Garnet Wolseley sailed for the Cape. With him as a volunteer went the gallant young Prince Louis Napoleon, who had studied in English schools and wished to fight under the English flag. It was fated that he should not return. One day the high-spirited lad was out with a small party, and he and his companions stopped to rest in a field of maize. Suddenly they were surrounded with Zulus. The others jumped on horseback to escape, but the Prince's steed became restive and he could not mount. While struggling with his horse he was speared by the savages. There were sixteen assegai wounds in his body when it was recovered next day.

Sir Garnet Wolseley met with his usual success. Lord Chelmsford utterly defeated Cetewayo in the battle of Ulundi, and Sir Garnet stormed and took the strongholds of Sikukani. Cetewayo was taken prisoner and sent to England, where he had interviews with the Queen, Mr. Gladstone and others, and became quite

the lion of the day. He was subsequently restored to his kingdom, but ultimately died of heart disease.

. The war in Egypt offered Sir Garnet Wolseley the next opportunity to distinguish himself. It began at Cairo in 1881 with a riot of soldiers, who surrounded the palace and demanded more pay. They were quieted on that occasion, but next year they repeated the scene. This time Arabi Pasha took the lead, and some 4000 soldiers gathered round the palace, but once more peace was made. France and England, who have great interests in Egypt, judged that the Porte was at the root of the quarrel. Turkish influence has been a barrier to Egyptian progress, and when a series of quarrels arose between the Khedive Tewfik and his ministers the great powers supported the former. These disputes became so serious that at length a French and English squadron was despatched to Egyptian waters.

This was in May, and in June riots and rebellions broke out in Alexandria. To remonstrances Arabi Pasha paid no heed, and it was at length found necessary to bombard the town—a proceeding, however, in which the French ships took no part.

The rebellion was finally overcome at the battle of Tel-el-Kebir, in which Sir Garnet Wolseley displayed all his usual power of careful arrangement and perfect calculation. In the Soudan campaign of 1884-5 he made a great effort to save Gordon, but it was too late—a circumstance for which he was not to blame. For his Egyptian services he was raised to the peerage.

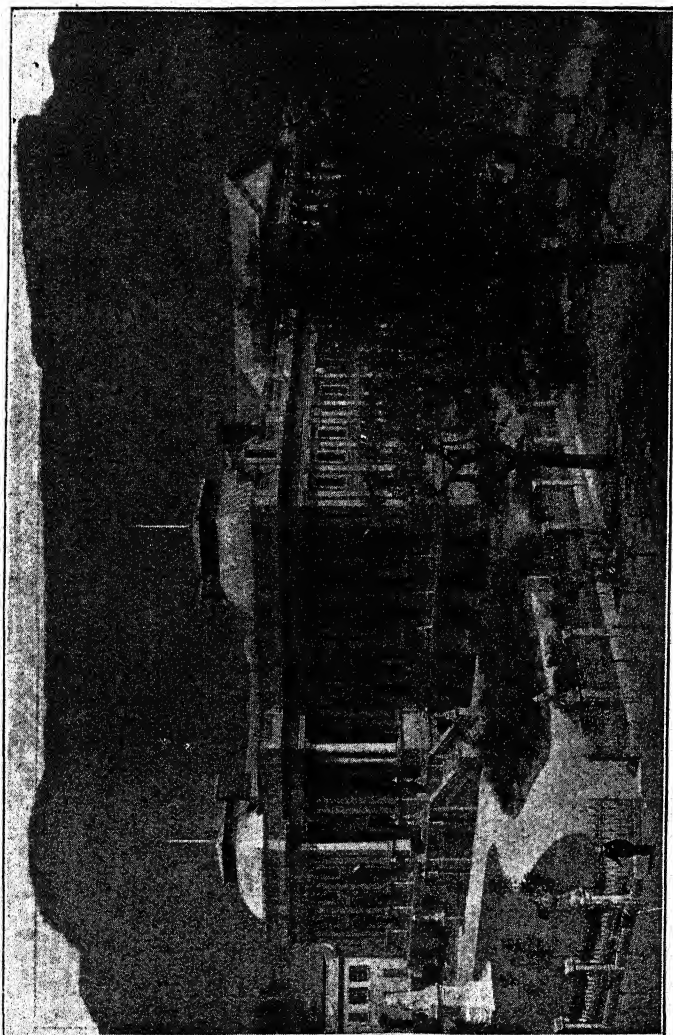
CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE EXPANSION OF THE EMPIRE.

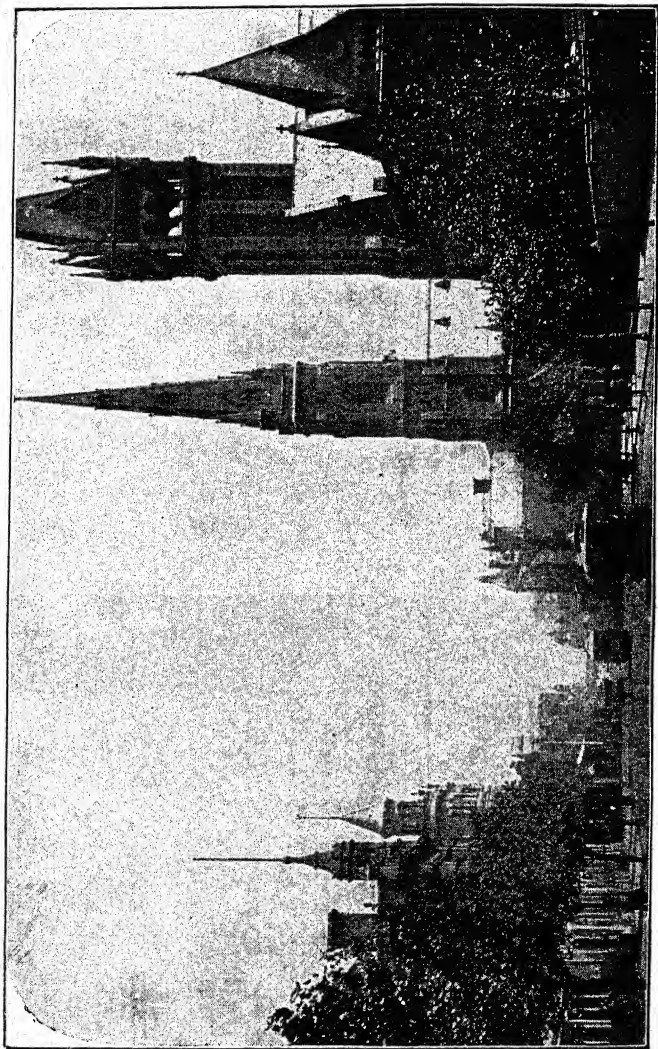
THERE is not recorded in history any other system of colonies so vast and prosperous as that over which the British flag waves. For every acre of land in the United Kingdom we hold nearly 100 acres abroad. Mere figures do not enable one fully to realise it unless we take some unit for comparison. The area of England is 50,867 square miles but the area of our possessions in India is 1,800,000 square miles; in Africa, 2,477,000 square miles; in America, 3,614,000 square miles, and in Australasia, 3,174,000 square miles.

Out of our colonies in Africa, America, and Australasia alone the land of eight German Empires could be furnished. And of this Greater England beyond the seas it has to be said that the land is not yet brought under full cultivation, the population is sparse, commerce and industry are in their infancy. For generations yet to come there is room for work and enterprise in developing the African plains and valleys, the Canadian wheatlands, the huge Australian territory.

For the last twenty years at least the tendency has been for our colonial trade to increase in proportion to that done with foreign countries. Cape Colony, for instance, sends 95 per cent. of its total exports to Great Britain, and 87 per cent. of its imports are either from



PARLIAMENT HOUSE, CAPE TOWN.



COLLINS STREET, MELBOURNE.



COLLINS STREET, MELBOURNE, IN 1840.

(Compare with page 144.)

Britain or British possessions. On an average three-fourths of the trade of each colony is done with the mother country. Thus the retention and improvement of our colonies are matters of the utmost concern to the great working and manufacturing population of Great Britain.

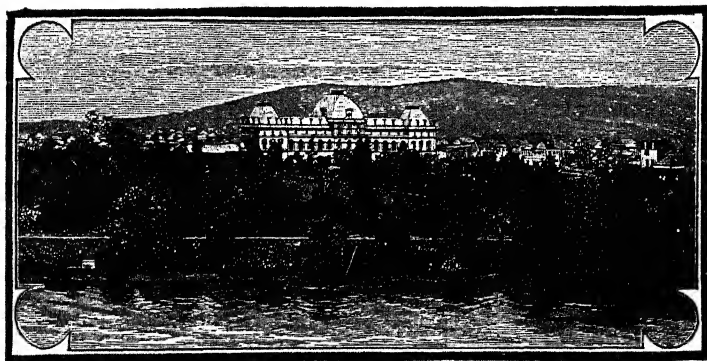
It is only during the later part of the reign that we



KING WILLIAM STREET, ADELAIDE.

have come to appreciate this fact. At the beginning of it the system of transportation still operated. Convicts used to be sent to the American plantations, but when these were lost the Government fixed upon Botany Bay (in New South Wales), which got its name from Captain Cook on account of the variety of its plants and flowers.

Novelists have tried in vain to depict the state of the society at a convict settlement. But as New South Wales began to attract free settlers, and as its soil became opened up to agriculture by railroads, the people naturally objected to have their land made a dust-bin for the scourgings of the old country. The injustice of the proceeding was vividly brought home to Englishmen when it was proposed in Victoria that Australian convicts should be shipped off to Plymouth. For a while



PARLIAMENT HOUSE, BRISBANE

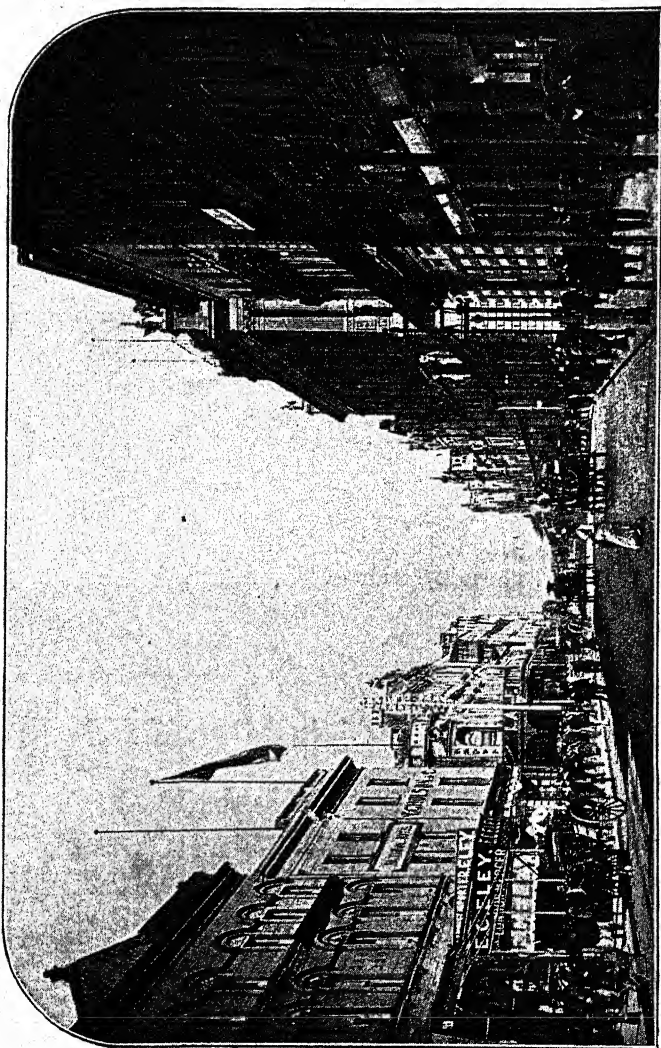
Western Australia was tried, but at length in 1867 the British Government abolished the system altogether.

During the present reign Australia has made highly satisfactory progress. Towards the beginning of the century nobody believed greatly in it. In 1810 the newly appointed Governor General Macquarie wrote of it, "the population in general is depressed by poverty, no credit public or private; the morals of the great mass of the people in the lowest state of debasement".

We get some notion of the advance that has

been made by comparing these gloomy views with those of the present Agent-General. "Probably no other country in the world," he says, "has such resources, or can show such progress in pastoral enterprise as New South Wales," and he goes on to speak of its resources, the vast increase in the quantity of live stock kept, the increase in the value of land and in the crops raised from it. The population has more than trebled itself at four successive census takings, and still is not four to the square mile; for purposes of comparison you may remember that in England and Wales it is 498 to the square mile. Its capital, Sydney, with a population coming on towards 500,000 is one of the great colonial towns that compare with Manchester, Liverpool, Glasgow, and Belfast.

Victoria, which was separated from New South Wales and formed into a separate colony in 1851 has come on with a still greater rush. Its population has grown from only 224 in 1836 to over 1,000,000 in 1891, and its capital, Melbourne, has more inhabitants than even Sydney. Victoria owes its start as a prosperous colony in a large measure to the discovery of gold. Everybody knows something of the fever that event excited, of the attractions it held out to the penniless and the impoverished, the adventurous and the speculative, and how in many an instance men brought up to ease and refinement were drawn to Australia to wield the pickaxe and shovel. The stirring life of the gold diggers has often been described. The discovery among other things attracted to Australia bands of men who had to live and therefore were buyers and consumers of produce. Thus everything, land included, went up in price, and the development of the country received just the impetus that was needed.

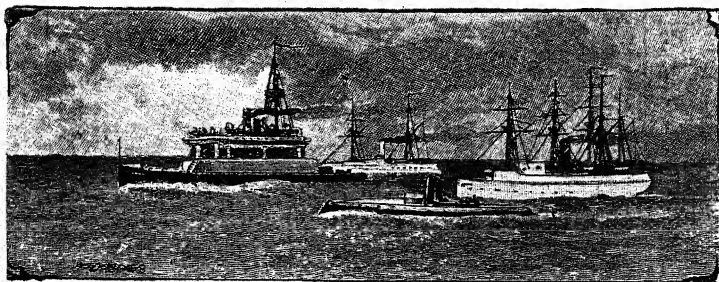


GEORGE STREET, SYDNEY.

A similar story of peaceful advancement checked at times by misfortune, but never wholly retarded, might be told of the colonies of New Zealand, Queensland and South Australia. It has so far been a progress without strife, and of late the tendency has been for the mother country and her daughters to draw closer together. Even of Canada much the same might be said, although once at least Canada was in danger. It is a country with vast resources, and exercises a permanent attraction on the very best of our agriculturists. There are not many people on English farms who have not a brother or a friend toiling on the immense wheat-lands of Manitoba.

Our colonies in South Africa have been enormously extended within the last few years. We have obtained a territory there stretching up to Lake Tanganyika, in which it has been said with little exaggeration, "you might sprinkle kingdoms like Portugal and then be unable to find them". The overflow from home cannot fill it up for generations.

See Table VI. on p. 230.



VICTORIA DEFENCE FLEET.

(From Brassey's *Last Voyage*.)

CHAPTER XXIX.

THE CONDITION OF INDIA.

It would lead to a wrong conclusion if we were to apply to India the tests by which the advancement of Great Britain has been measured, since the two countries started from points so different and continue so unlike. By trying to picture to yourself a village in India, and comparing it with one in England, some idea of the difference will be formed. We take one in Southern India as an example.

There is a good road leading up to it and shaded with way-side trees, for the country has been threaded with excellent roads. A main street runs up the middle, and at one side are the shops, in which sit swarthy merchants with their goods in baskets. In one is sold grain, in another cloth, in a third sweets, in another arrack, the intoxicating drink of the lower classes, in a fifth sits the money-changer, and so on. These shops have no windows or doors but are quite open to the street. At the other side is a temple to some Indian god, to which you see entering the priest and the dancing girls. Near by it dwell the learned Brahmins, and at some distance are the mud and thatched huts of the very poor.

But it is the occupation of the people and the implements and tools they use that are most striking. Everything seems to be done by hand. Outside the

village sits the potter twirling his wheel and fashioning his vessels of clay. Near by are women grinding corn between two stones. Another woman may be seen winnowing grain by tossing it in the air and letting the wind carry off the chaff; her neighbours may be carding cotton with a hand instrument, as they did before machinery was invented; another may be crushing oil



GROUP OF INDIAN WOMEN CARRYING WATER IN A VILLAGE.

out of seeds with the aid of a simple wooden pestle and mortar.

Looking at a village of the same size in England sixty years ago, you would have expected to hear the guard's horn and see a stage-coach come rattling up. People travel in a more leisurely style here. The only approximation to a coach is drawn sedately along by two bullocks, and the moderately rich man's method of

progression is in a palka or palanquin, carried by six stalwart bearers.

The main occupation of the people, however, is agriculture, and the plan of carrying it on well deserves attention. Close to the village is the land, the best being what is called wet land, that is to say it is near a canal or other irrigating source, from which it is continuously watered. It is broken up into plots smaller than our village allotments, and divided from one



INDIAN WOMEN GRINDING CORN.

another by mud banks. The plough is drawn by oxen, and has a share so contrived as *not* to make a deep furrow. In place of stilts there is an upright handle, and the ploughman sometimes carries a thong, but often a stick with a nail in it, to prod his team forward. Other instruments are to match. The harrow has no teeth—they would be useless on mud—and the spade is like an enlarged hoe.

Further away is the dry or unwatered land, of not

more than a twentieth of the value. For the wet soil is very productive; under the burning Indian sun and with plenty of water it is often possible to get as many as four crops in a year. They mostly consist of rice which is grown in a seed-bed near the village and transplanted when over a foot high. Needless to say the cultivators are nearly all of a poor class. Once upon a time they owned their patches, but the chances are that they have mortgaged them to the money-lender, who is the most flourishing person in India.

No Englishman could live on the fruits of their toil; the natives could not do so themselves but for the fact that they live so sparingly. Their scanty dress, consisting as it does of little more than a waist-cloth, costs them next to nothing. Their food is of the plainest, consisting as it mostly does of only the coarser grains. And yet they have a vanity of their own. It is seen in their love of ornament, the long earrings and toe-rings which the women delight in.

If we inquire further into the condition of the people we find them densely ignorant as judged by European standards. A very large majority of them can neither read nor write; yet we must not be too hasty in drawing conclusions from that fact. Learning is not wholly contained in printed pages. There is folk-lore—the learning passed orally from mouth to mouth, as well as book-lore—that which is taught by the schoolmaster, and the former is not altogether valueless. Nevertheless when all possible allowance has been made for the wisdom heard from the mouths of old men and sages, and for what has been picked up by experience and observation it must still be admitted that education is very backward.

After this rough outline of the condition of the people of our great Indian Empire, it will be more easy to understand not only what work England has done in the past, but what a gigantic task remains to be accomplished in the future.



A GROUP OF NATIVES.

(From Brassey's *Last Voyage*.)

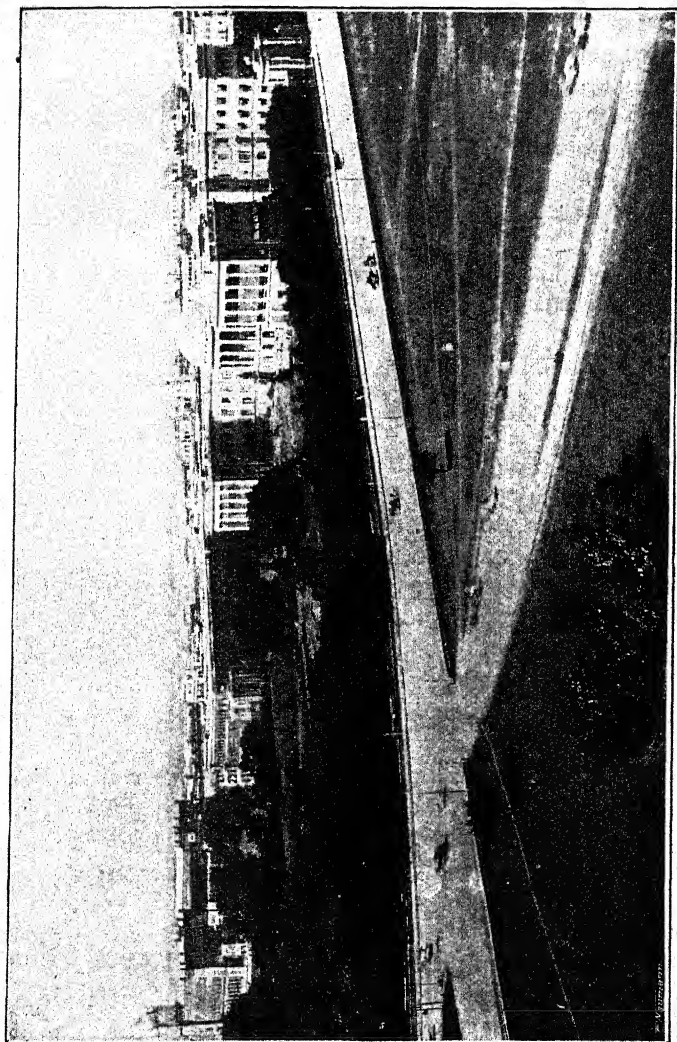
CHAPTER XXX.

INDIA'S MORAL PROGRESS.

THE romance of Indian history is apt to distract our attention from its peaceful progress. Early in the century the rich Indian nabob, who had gone out poor and returned with a huge fortune, a bad liver, and a love of curry, cut a laughable figure in English society. This was comedy. A sterner tale was told of "wild Mahratta battle," of grim adventure on the hilly Afghan borders, of siege and march and battle, of wounds and pain and death in its wild provinces.

Our eyes are fascinated by the features of such men as Ranjit Singh, who ruled the Punjab at the time of the Queen's accession. Half blind, with broad shoulders and shrunk hands and arms, so illiterate that he could not write, but "made his mark" with a finger dipped in saffron, yet so clever that he could easily outwit the keenest Englishmen, he seems like the ogre of a fairy-tale rather than a character in sober history.

The story of his death and the burning of his body might have come out of the *Arabian Nights*. But though he was so cold, crafty and cruel he appeared to have had a magical power over human affections. "Four of his Ranis," writes Mr. Frazer in his *British India*, "veiled and clothed in white silk held his hand; seven of his fair and beauteous slave girls sat at his



CALCUTTA, SHOWING GOVERNMENT HOUSE.

feet, while the flames from the sandal-wood and aloes carried their souls and that of their lord to the abode of the gods; even his Prime Minister, had to be forcibly restrained from seeking death when the son of Ranjit Singh fired the pyre." We have little to do with him just now, but the blaze of that funeral pyre casts a lurid light on the native Indian of 1839.

Historians have so occupied themselves with the thronging stage of war and commerce and its picturesque figures that they have paid less than due attention to many strong and far-reaching but peaceful changes. As an example take the abolition of slavery.

Under native rule the captives of battle were sent into slavery and as the children of a slave woman were held in servitude even when the father was a freeman, a constant supply was kept up. Until late times it was usual for men to sell themselves and families under the pressure of debt or famine. Early in the Queen's reign an officer reported that the amount of debt for which persons sell themselves was generally less than 20 rupees and in one case a single rupee had been named in the bond. During the floods in Calcutta in 1834 children were hawked about the streets for sale. It was in 1843 that an act was passed putting an end to these practices.

Now, just as the long prevalence of slavery accounts for the absence of thrift in the native poor so this absence explains their slow realisation of the blessing of freedom. Freedom was but a lesson in the rights of man, that in the nature of things could be really understood only after a lapse of time and which is only now beginning to bear fruit.

But the English flag carries with it not only freedom but justice, and the establishment of equal law was a

still more difficult process. In the first place there were awful crimes to be suppressed. Acts were passed in 1837, 1839 and 1848 to cope with that frightful species of murder called Thuggism. Thugs were persons who pretended to be travelling on business or pleasure, and joined themselves to any rich party that came in their way, waiting for an opportunity to kill and rob the adults and carry off the children for sale.

Most important of all was the establishment of courts of justice where law is administered with an even hand alike to rich and poor. And this is done in a way to let the Indians win back their self-respect. Other countries when they try to colonise have failed because their method is to do all the ruling themselves, and place officials from home in every place of trust; the British policy is to encourage self-government. In the villages throughout the country justice is dispensed by a native magistrate just as taxes are collected by a native



THE LAST OF THE THUGS.
(From Brassey's *Last Voyage*.)

accountant. Yet in a country where for generations the rich have oppressed the poor, and one class has been taught to look upon another as composed of a superior order of being, it takes long for the fact to be realised that before a court of law all are on an equal footing. We must be content to know that ideas of liberty and justice are developing surely though slowly.

Nothing can help the process so much as education, and therefore it is of the utmost importance to know what has been done in this direction during the Queen's reign. With 271,000,000 still unable to read and write there is a large field to work on, but already something has been accomplished.

Over 3,000,000 scholars are annually receiving instruction in schools and colleges, but the country is not yet ripe for the establishment of a complete and thorough-going educational system. The attempt to do so would very likely lead to rebellion, because it would be represented as an unfair way of undermining the ancient religions of India. But good observers see indications that the people will not much longer be content with ignorance. The free intercourse brought about by railway travelling is itself the beginning of education and is sure to rouse a desire for more knowledge.

Such are, as it were, the great streams of moral progress making for the advancement of India. We have not space even to glance at the many other things that are working for the good of the people, but a brief review of what has been done to increase their material welfare will help to complete the picture, or rather rough outline, of India under the Queen's reign.

CHAPTER XXXI.

INDIA'S MATERIAL PROGRESS.

MENTION has already been made of the East India Company—"John Company," as the natives called it, or rather called England itself for many a day. Its origin goes as far back as the reign of Elizabeth, when it was called the Old English Company; but a rival having started under the name of the London Company, the two were amalgamated in 1702 under the title of the Honourable East India Company. We need not follow it through its career of exclusive trading; it is sufficient to note it as a factor in the winning of the East. It ceased to exist after the Mutiny of 1857-8.

The development of India is largely due to the cutting of the Suez Canal. As long ago as 1840, Ferdinand de Lesseps conceived the idea, but the waterway was not opened for traffic till the 17th of November, 1869. Of how much use it is to us witness the following facts: Firstly, it saves one-third of the distance to India. To go from London to Bombay by Suez is shorter by 4265 miles than by the Cape, from London to Madras by 3500 miles. The greatness of our interest will be apparent from the following statement: In 1895 the total number of ships that passed through the canal was 3434, of which no fewer than 2318 were

British, 314 German, 278 French, 192 Dutch, and the rest of various nationalities. Every year India buys about £30,000,000 worth of British goods. Since the opening of the Suez Canal India has very nearly doubled its trade.

To the dread cause of famine India in some measure owes its development. Indeed, it has been scourged by all of the terrible woes of mankind mentioned by the poet: "Wasted lands, blight and famine, plague and earthquake, roaring deeps and fiery sands, clanging fights and flaming towns". We have not thought it necessary so far to burden the young reader with lists of dry figures, but to understand India it is necessary to think about the following horrible list, compiled and laid before Parliament in a blue-book in 1885:—

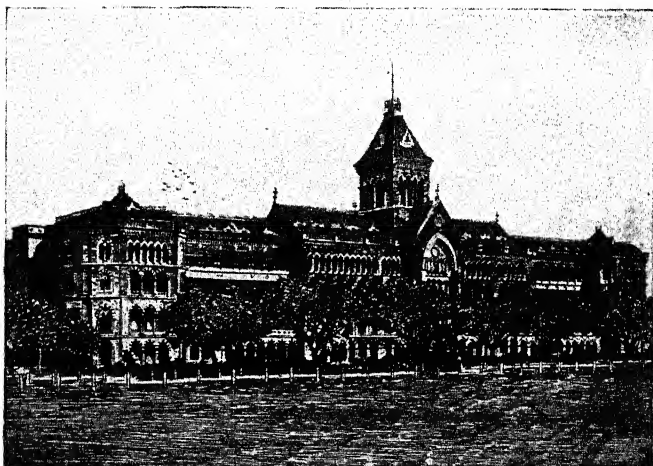
INDIAN FAMINES.

| Year. | Locality. | Deaths. |
|--------|----------------|------------|
| 1813 | Rajpoot | 2,000,000 |
| 1837 | Upper India | 800,000 |
| 1860 | Punjab | 500,000 |
| 1866 | { Orissa | 1,300,000 |
| | { Madras, etc. | 585,000 |
| 1868 | { Rajpoot | 1,250,000 |
| | { Punjab, etc. | 1,450,000 |
| 1877 | Bombay | 800,000 |
| 1878 | { Madras | 3,500,000 |
| | { Oude, etc. | 2,436,000 |
| Total, | | 14,621,000 |

As this is written, 1897, a famine of which we cannot yet estimate the extent is calling forth universal compassion for the country right across India, from

Rawal Pindi in the north-west to Bellary in the south. The difference between East and West is clearly shown in their respective attitudes to these frightful visitations. The Eastern bows his head in submission and attributes suffering to the vengeance of some offended deity or demon, and dreams of no other escape than by sacrifice or death.

But the Englishman says: "No; the famine must



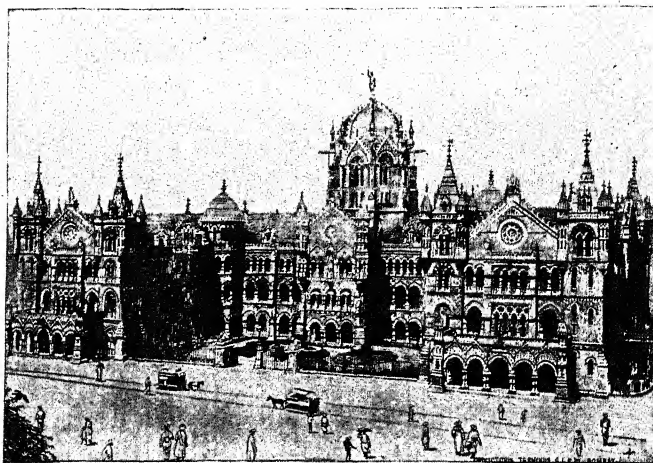
GOVERNMENT OFFICES, BOMBAY.

have a natural cause. Let us find that out, and confront it," and he sets boldly and vigorously to work to prevent its coming again, or to soften its effects. He sees that there are two things necessary to cope with famine, *viz.*, water and quick means of communication.

To meet the first want a vast system of irrigation has been established. Before Lord Laurence left India £250,000 had been spent upon irrigation, and

arrangements had been made for works that would cost as much more. The Ganges Canal alone waters 400,000 acres, and is 802 miles long. In the Madras Presidency there are 53,000 tanks and 30,000 miles of dykes. The largest reservoir or artificial lake in the world is in Northern India, and covers an area of 21 square miles.

In the year 1853, there were only $21\frac{1}{2}$ miles of rail-



TERMINUS OF GREAT INDIAN PENINSULA RAILWAY, BOMBAY.

way in India, but after the plagues of 1860 this matter, too, was taken in hand, and in the five years before 1868 4000 miles of railway had been constructed in India. By the 31st of March, 1895, 21,000 miles had been laid down, and preparations for a still vaster increase are now being pushed forward.

No doubt when cultivation has been made easier and more certain, and the minds of the people have

been stirred by facilities for cheap travelling, they will gradually learn the wisdom of laying by something for a rainy day, but there is one other reform urgently needed before the value of thrift is understood. At present the money-lender is a leech who sucks the very life blood of industrial India. From the last census report it is seen that, in the words of Mr. Frazer, "two-thirds of the money-lenders of Assam have become land-owners, and nearly one-half of them in the north-western provinces have ousted the original cultivators, who have taken to other occupations, or more frequently have become day-labourers". The difficulty might perhaps be met by the establishment of people's banks or land banks, which would lend money on fair terms.

The character of the people who live in the large towns is changing into accord with modern conditions. The old cities, Agra, Delhi, Allahabad, Benares, Lucknow grew merely because they were the seats of emperors or the shrines of idols, but their modern successors, the great towns of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras owe their size to their convenience for trade and industry. In them factories, workshops and all that belongs to European civilisation flourish, and from them we may expect to spread those principles of thrift and enterprise which are the only sure safeguards against famine and suffering.

CHAPTER XXXII.

PEACE AND WAR.

THERE is only one other English Queen whose reign is at all comparable to that of Victoria. In the days of "good Queen Bess" England had to fight tooth and nail for a place among European countries, and so her greatest victories were gained in war, and her heroes were sea-rovers and adventurers. Victoria came to the throne when the country was settling down after a still more prolonged conflict, in which, whatever the pretended cause of quarrel might be, the real issue was which country was to take command of the sea and hold the leading place in commerce.

The decision had gone in our favour, and the strength of England was now directed to the battles of peace. Instead of conquering armies the new generation conquered natural forces. Its great achievements were to force steam and electricity into human service, to help the weak and relieve the oppressed, to lessen suffering and extend knowledge, and to wage ceaseless warfare against vice.

Its efforts in these directions would have been sadly cramped but for the fact that the reign of Victoria has been one of peace. Dreadful wars have raged on the continent, as in the case of Prussia against France, and Russia against Turkey, but only in one



LORD ROBERTS.

[Photo. Russell.]

instance has the United Kingdom taken a part. In 1854 England and France joined Turkey in a war with Russia, and each country sent a fleet into the Black Sea and landed an army in the Crimea.

The chief events were the siege of Sebastopol, the battle of Inkermann, and the famous charge of the Light Brigade, but a Russian winter proved more deadly than the foemen's guns, and the sufferings of the Allied Army were terrible to think of.

There were two parts of our organisation that proved hopelessly bad. One was the commissariat system, and the other the care of the sick and wounded. At that time Miss Florence Nightingale, a lady of good family and ample means, had been devoting herself to the reformation of that hopelessly bad nursing system that Dickens had exposed in *Martin Chuzzlewit*. At the request of the Government she, with a number of lady volunteers and a trained staff of nurses, went out to the seat of war, and by her unwearied efforts and excellent organisation succeeded in bringing order and method into the care of the sick.

Since then soldiers have had reason to bless her name, for in other wars her noble example has been followed, and the scenes of the Crimea are not likely to be repeated. The Allies became masters of Sebastopol in September, 1855, and in 1856 the war was ended with the famous treaty of Paris.

No calling has in the last sixty years undergone greater changes than that of nurse. In 1837 persons very like Sairey Gamp and Betsy Prig started to nurse with no qualification and when they had no other means of earning a livelihood. But now very great care is taken to prepare those who wish to undertake these duties. Many County Councils go still further

and in connection with the St. John's Ambulance Association have arranged for lectures to be given on the best means of affording first aid to the wounded. Thus, in every village almost, there are a few people who know what to do in case of an accident. In 1887, too, a nurses' association was started in honour of the Queen's Jubilee, partly in order to unite nurses for their mutual aid and support, partly to arrange for the nursing of the sick poor. Those who compose the body have been trained in hospitals under the eye of experienced physicians. Many ladies of wealth and high birth have become nurses for the sake of the good they can do, and to women who lack means nursing has opened up a new, honourable and noble profession.

England has been engaged in no other European war during the reign, but she has scarcely ever been free from little disputes on the frontiers of her wide territory, and one or two of these wars assumed considerable proportions. One of the most lamentable was the famous Indian Mutiny that followed close on the Crimea. Its origin is still to some extent wrapped in mystery. News had been spread about among the natives that England had been defeated by the Czar. Conspirators set abroad stories that the rulers were scheming to undermine their religion. But it is difficult to say how far these were genuine causes of indignation, and how far they were only contrivances used for their own purposes by the rebel leaders.

The Indian Mutiny led to many wild scenes of bloodshed and battle, and was finally suppressed in 1857. At Cawnpore some 400 men under Sir Hugh Wheeler were surrounded by 3000 Sepoys, and after a gallant defence, ruthlessly massacred. When Havelock arrived with succour, the bodies of 118 women and

92 children were found at the famous well, at which a memorial now stands to mark the spot. Sir Colin Campbell's relief of Lucknow has often been told in song and story. The Queen's proclamation, issued in 1858, announced the end of the East India Company's rule.

Two or three incidents in subsequent warfare can only be alluded to. In 1879 Sir Louis Cavagnari was sent as chief of an embassy into Afghanistan as a permanent envoy with an escort to represent England at Kabul. This was in July, and on the 3rd of September a rabble of Afghan tribesmen and soldiers from Herat appeared at the residency gates, and, bravely fighting for their lives, one by one the Europeans were slain.

Shortly after Sir Frederick Roberts at the head of 3500 men marched to Kabul, and the hostile force was utterly broken up and routed in a battle fought on the 23rd of December. In July of the next year occurred the great disaster to General Burrow's brigade at Maiwand. Ayooob Khan, the brother of Yakoob Khan, swept down on them from Herat, inflicting a loss of 964 killed and 167 wounded.

General Roberts at that time was at Kabul, and his march thence to Kandahar is one of the most famous military feats in modern times. The distance is about 320 miles, and with a force of 10,000 men he covered it in twenty days, and on the 1st September fought the battle of Kandahar, in which Ayooob Khan was utterly defeated, 1000 of his soldiers slain, and all his guns captured.

Passing over the war in Burmah and other troubles we select the expedition to Chitral as an example of frontier disturbance. Chitral is a small state about

the size of Wales, lying north-east of Afghanistan. It has great importance because it commands the passes of the Hindu Kush—the watershed between India and Central Asia.

The ruler of this state died in August, 1892, and his second son, Sher Afzer, being murdered, his brother sent word to the Viceroy of India that he had been elected chief by common consent, and asked that an English agent should be sent to Chitral. He was deposed by his uncle, who in turn was shot by his half-brother while hunting. In the confusion the chief of a neighbouring state, Umra Khan, tried to seize Chitral, and was joined by Sher Afzal. The reckless hill-men joined these insurgents, and the English agent who had been sent was attacked and driven into the fort.

A small force of Kashmir infantry under Captain Campbell advanced to its relief, but was driven back, and the leader fatally wounded. In this condition Surgeon-Major Whitworth carried him on his back to the fort, a distance of three miles, through the midst of their enemies—an act of heroism for which he deserves to be remembered. From 3rd March to 17th April the little band gallantly held the fort, although nearly a third of their number were wounded.

Under these circumstances, Sir Robert Lowe with 15,000 men was sent to their relief. He forced the Malabar Pass, 3500 feet high, drove a force of 12,000 men from a strong position, bridged the flooded river—on whose bank the gallant Colonel Batty was killed—and at length met and defeated Umra Khan. Chitral is now the most advanced post in British India.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

MODERN HEROISM.

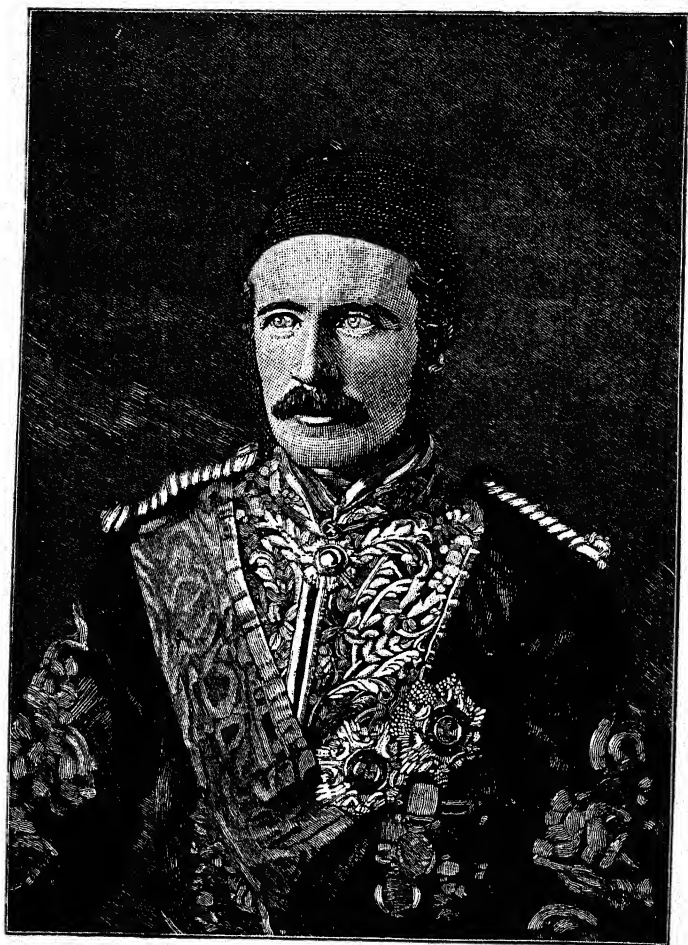
NEARLY all the heroes of the past were fighters pure and simple. They were like that brave Earl Douglas, who when carrying the heart of Bruce for burial in the Holy Land got into a battle with the Moors. When beset by enemies and nearly done to death he flung his precious charge into the midst. "Lead on, gallant heart, as thou art wont!" he cried; "the Douglas will follow thee or die." Song and story are full of similar deeds of valour.

In our age there have been men of valour not unworthy of comparison even with the brave knights of old, and bravery is, and is ever likely to be, held in high esteem, but in our greatest heroes we look for something more. What is meant will be made clear from the study of a few examples drawn from the Queen's reign. We honour those who have fought for their country; we still more honour those whose heroism has been exerted not to destroy life but to save it.

The first we shall mention is Grace Darling. In September of 1838 she was a young woman of twenty, then staying with her father who was a lighthouse-keeper on the Farne Isles—a group of rocky islets now given over to sea-fowl and situated off the stormy

coast of Northumberland. The rocks and channels have caused many accidents, and in the month referred to a steam-boat named the *Forfarshire* was wrecked there. Most of the crew were drowned, but a few were seen huddled on the bare top of a rock with the waves dashing and foaming round them. Old Darling looked at his coble and hesitated. It would be possible to go out but there would be no getting back unless with the aid of the men to be rescued. Grace not only offered to go but persuaded her father to make the desperate attempt, and, with the certainty of death unless they succeeded in getting a strong man on board, they ventured out. They did succeed, and the name of Grace Darling has ever since been a household word. All the more so because the modest and quiet girl did not live many years after the event, but died of consumption at twenty-eight.

Our next specimen of a hero is Charles Gordon, who was born on 28th January, 1833, and was killed at Khartoum in January, 1885. Gordon was an ideal warrior of the nineteenth century. No knight of romance was braver or had more skill and resourcefulness. He was inured to war in that training-ground of so many modern soldiers the Crimea. Afterwards he fought in the China war, and when the great Tai-Ping rebellion broke out he cleared Shanghai of rebels and thieves, and the Emperor in gratitude made him chief of the Ever-Victorious Army. Ever-victorious it did indeed prove against the rebels; but when Gordon was appointed the name seemed to have been given in mockery, for the "army" was only a rabble of 2000 Chinese with 150 British officers. But Gordon drilled and trained it into efficiency, and it won battle after battle against the rebels. Gordon himself was always



GENERAL GORDON.

in the thickest of the fray, but he did not fight, indeed he carried in his hand only a light walking cane with which he directed the movements of his troops, and which the Chinese called his magic wand.

Gordon was as faithful and loyal—faithful and loyal to his own conscience—as he was brave and fearless. He left the Chinese service because, after a victory he had agreed that the lives of the rebels should be spared, but General Li had caused them to be murdered. Proudly he refused to accept any reward or honours from a country that had behaved so. Not till Li had been censured did he return and quell the rebellion. Even then he would accept of no reward. “I shall leave China as poor as when I entered it,” he wrote home.

The simple, brave and stainless soldier returned to England in 1865, and till 1874 was engaged in those common-place duties that fall to an officer in time of peace. His leisure was devoted to helping the poor, especially homeless and destitute boys. Some he made room for in his own house, some he prepared for sea, and he loved them all and called them his “kings”—much in the same spirit as the schoolmaster who every morning lifted his hat to his pupils, as one who did not know what great genius might be among them.

In 1874 the Khedive of Egypt asked Gordon to become Governor of the Soudan tribes, and in bringing that wild domain into order and fighting against the slave trade he found a task according to his mind. He resigned for lack of support, but was induced to return in 1877, when he was appointed Governor-General of the Soudan and the provinces lying to the south. It is characteristic that although offered a salary of £10,000 a year, he would only take £2000.

One other side of Gordon's character has to be known—it was his love of quiet meditation. Often he withdrew to think and reflect. Like the knights of old, he frequently turned his mind to Palestine, and spent the entire year of 1883 in that country, dreaming over the great scenes enacted there in the past, and enriching the simple piety of his mind.

Soon he was called to more stirring scenes. King Leopold had asked him to go to the Congo, but there was more need of him in the Soudan, where the Mahdi, or false prophet, had raised an insurrection. He was thought to be the only man who could relieve the garrisons on the upper Nile. How he was sent to Khartoum, how he held out for 337 days, how help was withheld till too late, how he was murdered at last, are shameful circumstances which we need not dwell on here, since our object is only to outline a heroic character.

One more hero, as simple and kind and true as Gordon himself, has to be mentioned. David Livingstone was born at Blantyre, in Lanarkshire, on the 19th of March, 1813. Like so many poor boys of his time, he had to begin working early, and at ten was sent to be "piecer" in a cotton mill. But the family were fond of reading and self-improvement, and happening to acquire an old copy of Ruddiman's *Grammar*, he taught himself Latin, and learned to read Horace and Virgil. Later on, he was so much struck with the remarks of a medical missionary who had come from China that he resolved to prepare himself for the same profession. At nineteen he still worked at a cotton mill, but managed also to attend classes at Glasgow University. To compress his history and adventures into a page or two would only be

confusing, but his heroism demands a few words. In his own way he was not only as brave but as resourceful as Gordon, and ventured into the dark African lands trusting, not in vain, that the brotherliness of his own mind would awaken friendship in the minds of the fierce natives. He secluded himself from Europeans that he might thoroughly get to understand the minds and language and habits of the folk he had gone to teach. And he did win their hearts with his simple earnest truth. No nobler life is recorded in history than that which ended when the resolute old man was found dead, kneeling by his bed, his face buried in his hands on the pillow. Two or three years before he had said: "This is the sort of grave I should prefer; to lie in the still, still forest, and no hand ever to disturb my bones". By then he had lost some of his nearest and dearest, he was a sufferer from wounds and disease, and he, strange as it may appear, thought his life a failure because he had been baffled in his desire to stand by the sources of the Nile.

Natives carried his body to the sea. It was borne thence to England in a ship, and now rests among the great English dead in Westminster Abbey, and there is no story of these times of which his countrymen are prouder.

Such are a few examples of heroism in the Victorian era. They are chosen not because they are the most striking, but because they are illustrative of the lofty modern idea of bravery combined with kindness and self-sacrifice.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

POLITICAL PROGRESS.

THE political period to which we belong properly takes its beginning in 1832, when the first great Reform Bill was passed. It introduced new methods. Previously a member of Parliament, if he sat for "a pocket borough," was to a large extent independent of public opinion. Afterwards he was obliged both to woo and retain the votes and goodwill of the people who elected him, and was bound to cultivate the art of what Carlyle named "stump oratory".

In 1867 the right to vote in an election of a member of Parliament was still further extended to householders in England and Scotland, accompanied by a redistribution of seats, and in 1884 those who lived in the country districts were given the same voting rights as those who lived in the large towns. Then, at length, every adult male who is a householder in town or country, or if unmarried supports himself in lodgings, obtained a direct voice in the representation of his country. Over 6,000,000 people, or about one-sixth part of the entire population of the United Kingdom are entitled to vote. Up to 1872 open voting was the rule, but the Ballot Act of that year gave the protection of secrecy to those taking part in an election, so that they might exercise the right without fear or favour.

The House of Commons has not been content with mending its own ways, but has set up what may be called a host of smaller Parliaments. The parish at its meeting elects one, and the county another, so that local government is a reproduction on a small scale of that which attends to imperial affairs.

Let us see now what has been done to advance civilisation. Reference has already been made to the ideals of health and humanity steadily aimed at by all parties during these sixty years. Women and children have been defended from oppression by the Factory Acts and other measures. Insanitary and over-crowded houses, brutal and debasing sports, cruelty either to human beings or dumb animals—in fighting against these all parties have been united. Somewhat akin is the legislation which has made it compulsory for employers to compensate their servants for accidents due to unprotected machinery.

Ireland has occupied attention largely during the reign, and has been such a battle-ground of parties that it is difficult to separate real reforms from mere political moves in its history. Often it has been in distress, and unhappily when Irishmen suffer they sometimes resort to outrage. Thus England constantly appears in the attitude of holding redress in one hand and a coercion bill in the other.

During the 1868 to 1874 Ministry of Mr. Gladstone, two great Irish measures were passed. By one the Protestant Church was disestablished and disendowed; by the other an effort was made to reform the Land Laws. The latter has been followed by several other measures conceived on the same lines. The grievance against which they have all been directed is the charge made by tenant farmers that no sooner did they succeed

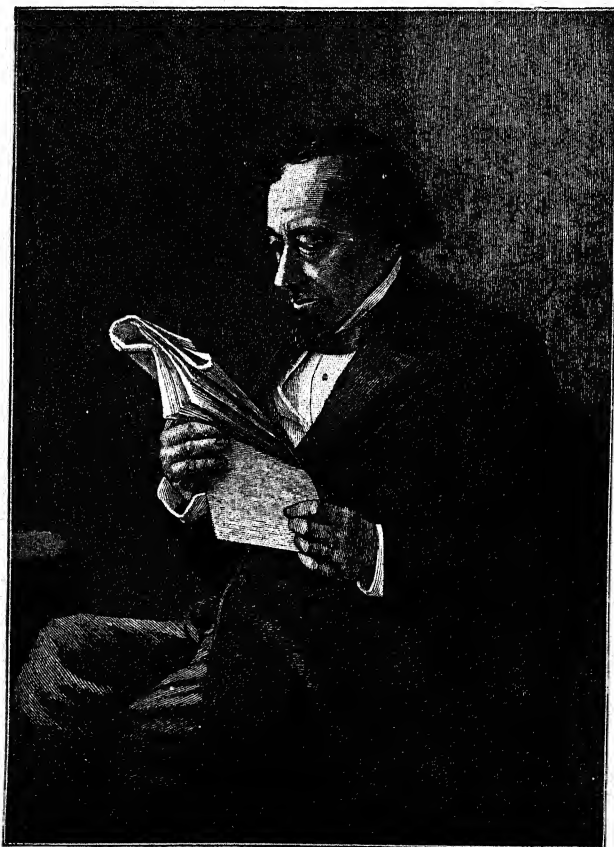
in improving their holdings than the landlord stepped in and claimed an unreasonable increase of rent. Mr. Gladstone sought to remedy this at first by establishing a kind of tenant right, *i.e.*, ensuring to the tenant the monetary value of the improvements he effected, and afterwards by creating a tribunal for fixing rents—judicial rents as they are called.



WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE.

It was in the Administration that began in 1880 that lawlessness was at its worst. Mr. Parnell in those days was called the “uncrowned king of Ireland,” and wielded great influence over his countrymen. On account of his strong language he was lodged in Kilmainham Gaol, and while he was there occurred one of

the most startling crimes of modern days, the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish and his secretary Mr. Burke in the Phoenix Park, Dublin.



THE EARL OF BEACONSFIELD.

It was the greatest calamity that could have happened to the Irish Nationalist party. All the sympathy

they had won in England was now lost. Events afterwards occurred, not only to lower Mr. Parnell in public esteem, but to make him ridiculous, and from that time the strength of the Irish agitation has decreased.

In 1886 Mr. Gladstone brought forward a plan for granting Home Rule to Ireland, but a revolt among his followers caused him to resign, and the Conservatives had a small majority at the general election that followed. During his last Administration he once more introduced a Home Rule Bill, but it was thrown out by the House of Lords. The very large majority by which the Conservatives were returned at the general election of 1895 served to show that the country at large endorsed the opinion of the House of Lords.

For a large portion of the reign Mr. Gladstone and Lord Beaconsfield were alternately at the head of affairs. The most important difference between them was that while Mr. Gladstone's enthusiasm was mostly for domestic reform, the attention of his rival was fixed on foreign and colonial policy. Both went a little to extremes, Mr. Gladstone in his passion for change, and Lord Beaconsfield in his pursuit of imperialism.

Still with all his love of pomp and show the Conservative leader deserves credit for perceiving the vast importance of our foreign relations. Great Britain is a trading and commercial country, whose very existence depends on having markets wherein to sell the products of her industry and buy her food and raw material. She is also the great carrier of the world, and must always be strong enough to protect her mercantile marine.

In the past we have had to fight for this position ; in the time of Elizabeth we beat the Spaniards, later on

the Dutch, and finally the French, and at this time of day England dares not give up her hard-won advantages. The actions of Lord Beaconsfield may be open to criticism, but he did the country a service so far as he directed its attention to the supreme importance of foreign policy.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE TRIUMPHS OF PEACE.

How this country has grown in wealth and substance during the Queen's reign may easily be inferred from a mention of facts. During the first part of the century England groaned under its burden of taxation, and many of the inhabitants escaped from it by emigration. The gross amount of taxes levied has nearly doubled, and every year the Chancellor of the Exchequer has to ask for more. Yet there is no complaint. No one on any side thinks it worth while to protest. The gross revenue of the country in 1837 was less than £50,000,000 and for the year ending March, 1897 it was £103,000,000.

Taxes are paid with cheerfulness for two reasons. First, the nation can better afford them because it is richer. When steam came to be applied to trade of all kinds the wealth-producing capacity of each individual was enormously increased. In 1815 Arkwright's spinning jenny enabled one man to do the work it would have taken 200 to do a few years before, and steam and other improvements have still further enlarged individual capacity.

At the present time a girl twelve years old working in a Lancashire mill can turn out thirty-five yards of printed calico daily, her work in one year sufficing to clothe 1200 persons in the East. During sixty years past

See Table I. on p. 225.

the manufactures of Great Britain have increased three-fold in value, and in the same period our commerce has expanded to close upon seven times its bulk in 1837.

We know, too, from the history of banking in the Queen's reign how much more people have been able to save than they did of yore. The working classes have laid by millions in the Post Office Savings Bank. Joint-stock banks practically started at the beginning



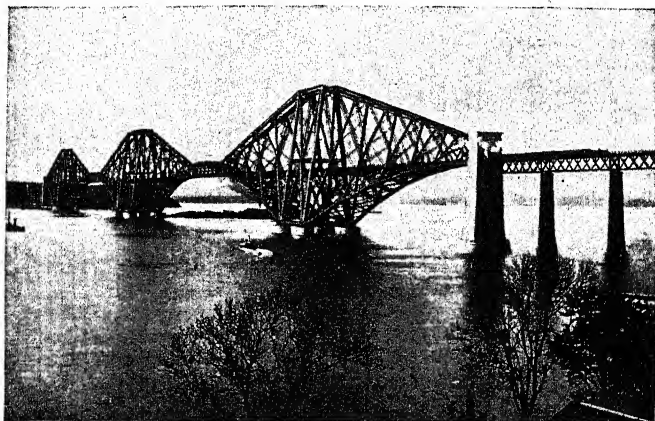
THE TOWER BRIDGE.

[Photo. Russell.]

of the reign, and in deposits, cash and reserve their assets were returned at over £600,000,000 in 1895.

Secondly, not only have we more wealth out of which to pay taxes, but the taxes themselves are collected in a much more convenient and less burdensome manner. In 1840 Joseph Hume reported that there were no fewer than 1150 rates of duty chargeable on imported articles; another authority has reckoned that there was a tax on 1250 articles of consumption,

Until then the folly of taxing food supplies and raw imports had not been fully recognised. Now-a-days we know better. Revenue is raised in a manner that does not hamper trade and enterprise, and our commerce has undergone a great expansion—the total exports and imports of the United Kingdom being far greater than those of any other nation. The total trade is double that of Germany, and Germany comes nearest to us, the next being the United States, followed by France.



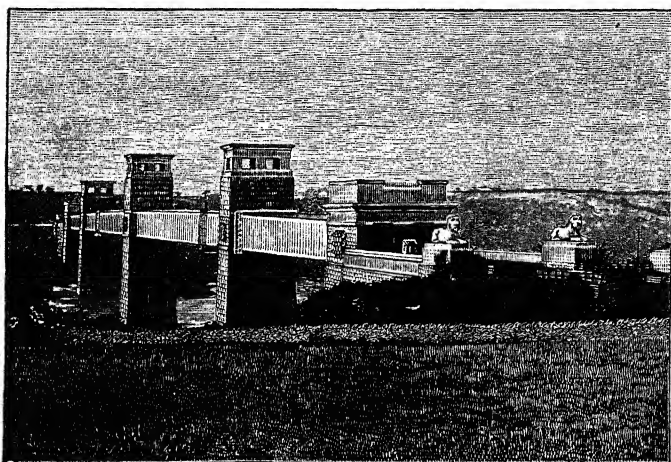
THE FORTH BRIDGE.

[Photo. Valentine.]

The greatest triumph we have achieved is this:—Population has vastly increased, and yet although distress has by no means been rooted out, people are better fed, better clothed and better educated than they were in 1837 and the century before. They show it by obeying the laws more cheerfully. Look at a newspaper of the forties, and you are almost certain to read of the soldiers being despatched to quell a riot somewhere. The disturbances that have occurred in

recent years have been purely local in character, and of little consequence as compared with the riots of the past.

These triumphs are general in their nature, but there are some particular achievements of which we have reason to be proud. Among them is not to be numbered the first Tay Bridge. It was during construction reputed to be one of the greatest feats of engineering

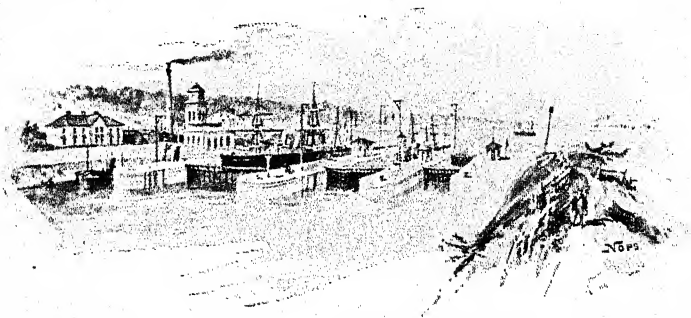


THE BRITANNIA TUBULAR RAILWAY BRIDGE OVER THE MENAI STRAIT.
Designed by Robert Stephenson ; opened in 1850.

in its day, crossing over the Tay at Dundee where it is two miles wide; but one wild tempestuous night, the 28th December, 1879, while being crossed by a passenger train it toppled over, and all on it at the time were killed. People on the Dundee side saw the twinkling lights of carriages and engine half-way across and then they disappeared, leaving only a few ruined arches.

It was a stern lesson in engineering to be taken to heart by those who were already projecting a companion bridge over the Forth at Queensferry. This was opened in 1889 and is properly considered one of the greatest engineering feats of the century. It rests on four cylindrical pillars of masonry, 70 feet in diameter, and built on rocks 90 feet under water. It can safely support a weight of 84,000 tons and 48,000 tons of steel were used in its construction. Its length is 5330 feet.

Before the building of the Forth Bridge the two



MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL.

Locks and entrance at Eastham.

most noteworthy feats of the kind achieved during the reign were those of George Stephenson, the Tubular Bridge across the Menai Straits and the High Level Bridge at Newcastle-on-Tyne. Since then the Tower Bridge has been opened in London. Some idea of the traffic across it may be derived from the statement that in 1895 it was used daily on an average by 30,000 foot passengers and 9000 conveyances.

The Manchester Ship Canal ranks next to the Suez Canal in importance. It was begun in 1887 and finished in 1894, with the object of allowing large vessel to pass

a distance of $35\frac{1}{2}$ miles between Liverpool and Manchester. The cost of construction was enormous, no less than £15,000,000 being spent upon it. The numerous bridges, the swing aqueducts by which it is carried across the Bridgewater Canal, and many other parts are fine specimens of nineteenth century engineering.

It is worthy of note that attention is now being again directed to our waterways. Between 1790 and 1796 there was a perfect mania for making canals, and the work went steadily on till 1832 when people began at last to believe in railways. For many years afterwards canals were neglected and some fell into disuse and became choked with weeds. But there is at present a disposition to look more favourably on waterways as means for the transit of goods.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

CELEBRITIES OF THE REIGN.

THE life of a great nation runs in so many different channels that it is difficult to keep them all in view. Take the beginning of the reign as an example, and we seem to find worlds of interest, each of which is completely separated from the rest. While court and society were intent on the sick-bed of William IV., "a crowded yet silent audience of both sexes" was in Willis' Rooms hearing Carlyle discourse on German literature, and at Oxford John Henry Newman was preparing for the great movement associated with his name.

George Stephenson and his navvies, he planning and they toiling, were working on their iron roads as if nothing else was of any consequence.

In Glasgow young Mr. Cunard was in daily consultation with Mr. Burns and Mr. MacIver regarding their projected steamship company. Tourists through the northern counties remark that these were subjects of conversation only among the more educated classes, and what struck them most was the grumbling of the poor, who could not get enough to eat and were threatening riot and insurrection.

Perhaps a brief sketch—in some cases the mere mention—of some of the great, interesting, or curious personages of the time may help at least to suggest a picture that may be filled in with wider reading.

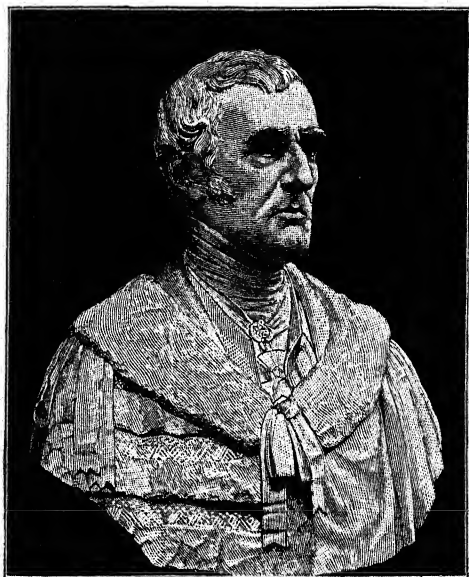
First and foremost comes the great Duke—"the hero of a hundred fights who never lost an English gun". Born in 1768, Wellington was only forty-seven at the Battle



CARDINAL NEWMAN.

of Waterloo, and did not die till 1852. Although the mob smashed the windows of Apsley House in the stormy days of the Reform Bill, there never after-

wards was reason to question the love and trust by which he was regarded. He was often to be seen riding—he could keep his seat on horseback when he could not sit on an easy chair—or driving in a cab of his own contrivance, and from the Queen down to the poorest workman there were none who did not believe



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

From a bust by Francis in the National Portrait Gallery.

in him. He has been accused of coldness and sternness, but the old man of eighty, whose cheeks were furrowed with tears as in the House of Lords he spoke of Sir Robert Peel's death, and who was so loyal and faithful and true to his friends as well as to his country, could not have been really lacking in warmth. He "fell asleep" at

Walmers Castle in 1852, and though he was eighty-four years of age the nation was as truly grieved as if he had been cut off in his prime. His bones were laid by those of Nelson in St. Paul's.



LORD PALMERSTON.

From a seated figure in Hayter's Reformed Parliament in the National Portrait Gallery.

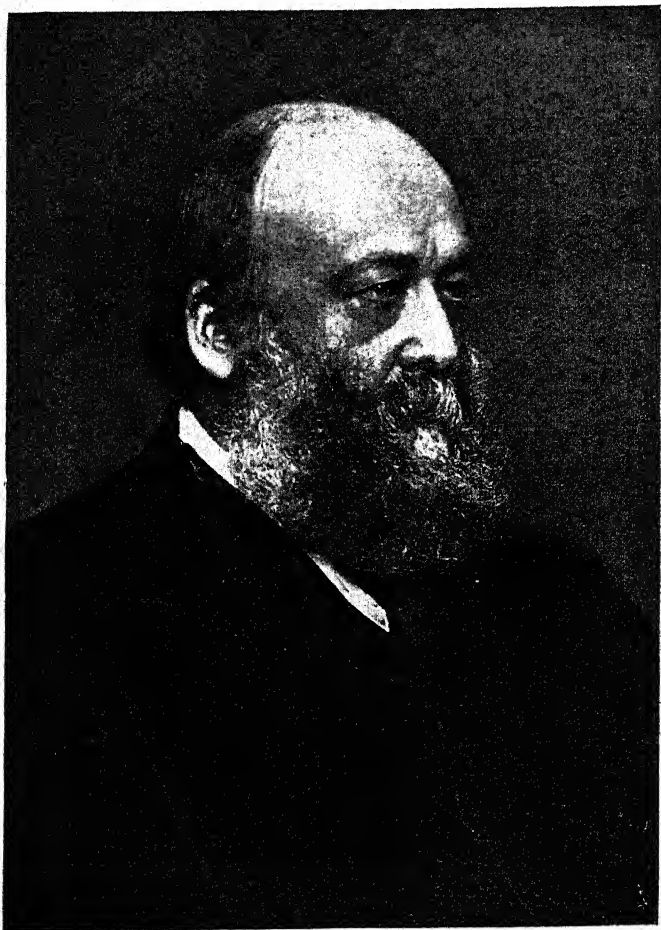
Of the long procession of statesmen from the premiership of Melbourne to that of Lord Salisbury, only a few interesting names can be selected for mention. Lord Palmerston entered Parliament in 1807, and died in 1865, and in the long interval between those years

his was a name much before the country. In character he was a typical Englishman. Jovial in manner, a farmer, a sportsman, and yet a man of strong will and insight, he to an unusual degree enjoyed the confidence of all parties. He was addicted to a good-humoured raillery that concealed his firmness of purpose and made a great contrast between him and men like Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright, whose words and looks were always as serious as their intentions. Lord Palmerston had very little sympathy with domestic reformers, but his triumphs in foreign policy were those of a great diplomatist. He successfully kept England out of the quarrels that raged in other parts of the world during his last Ministry.

During Mr. Gladstone's Administration of 1880-5 there sprang into existence a small body of politicians nicknamed the Fourth Party, consisting of young men, all of whom were destined to become famous. The leader was Lord Randolph Churchill, for whom it was common to prophesy a career to match that of Disraeli. At that time the Conservatives were led in the House of Commons by Sir Stafford Northcote, assisted by Mr. W. H. Smith, and Mr., now Lord, Cross, all very good, amiable and trustworthy men.

Lord Randolph Churchill, with a combination of dash and eloquence, very soon won for himself a commanding position, and succeeded so far that for a brief space he was Chancellor of the Exchequer. But disease was at work sapping his life and energy, and after suffering a visible loss of his old mental vigour, he was at length carried off in the prime of life, and to the young generation his is likely to be but the shadow of a name.

Mr. Arthur James Balfour, the present leader (1897)



LORD SALISBURY.

[Photo. Russell.

of the House of Commons, though a member of the party led by Lord Randolph, differed entirely from him in character. Studious and thoughtful, he seems to live a life apart from the affairs he manages. He won his first great distinction as Irish Secretary, and it was characteristic that a post, the anxiety of which had ruined the constitution of Mr. Forster and made Sir George Trevelyan an old man before his time, seemed only to have a bracing effect upon the health of Mr. Balfour.

Lord Rosebery is nearly of the same age as Mr. Balfour, and equally brilliant in another way. He has resigned the leadership of the Liberal party, but still wields a commanding influence. He is a keen student of literature, and his wit and cleverness and sporting tastes remind us of Lord Palmerston rather than of John Bright. Like the other statesmen whose names we have selected, Lord Rosebery is not purely a party man; he represents the nation at large. In this he differs from Lord Salisbury, who is the chief of the Conservatives, and Sir W. V. Harcourt, who leads the Liberals in the House of Commons. The biography of each is a tale of party warfare.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

THE VICTORIAN ERA OF LITERATURE.

IF literature could be judged by statistics, then it would easily be shown that this is the most intellectual epoch known to history. There are no fewer than 15,000 newspapers printed in the English tongue, about 5000 new books appear annually in Great Britain, and, in addition to what they sell at home, publishers every year export 10,000,000 copies.

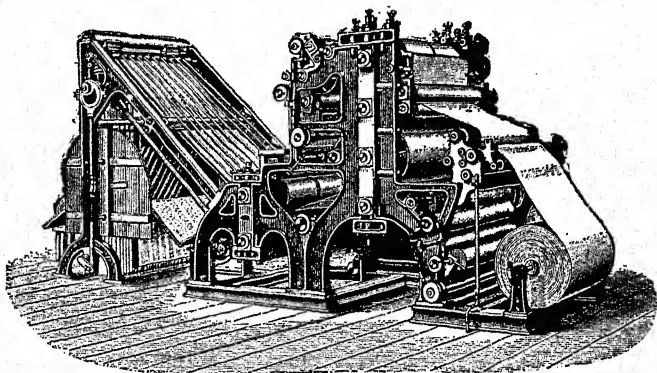
No one would, however, in grave earnest quote these figures to prove intellectual progress. We give them only to illustrate the effect of well-known causes.

In 1861 the paper duty was removed, and the era of cheap popular newspapers may be said to have begun, especially as interest was whetted by the outbreak of war in America. The telegraph, too, had come into operation, and the journals of New York began the system of giving vivid and immediate sketches from the scene of war. In this connection two great English war correspondents deserve to be mentioned. They are Sir W. H. Russell, who wrote such admirable descriptions of the American War for the *Times*, and Mr. Archibald Forbes, who won his first reputation by his graphic accounts in the *Daily News* of the Franco-Prussian war.

In 1866 the Atlantic cable was laid, and henceforth

news was flashed across the Atlantic. Before writing this paragraph on the night of 13th February, 1897, we had just laid down an evening paper containing an account of a chess match between English and American players, and the words in which it is described are worthy of being reproduced from the *Pall Mall Gazette* :—

“It would be very difficult to do full justice to such an event, as one really does not know in what terms to speak of the wonderful achievement that enabled twenty players, separated by 3000 miles, to play a



NEWSPAPER PRINTING MACHINE.

match just as if they were seated in the next room. The Commercial Cable Company managed the entire matter to perfection. From 3 to 7 P.M. about eighteen moves were made on the average on each board. Counting move and reply this gives 360 messages, which only took a little over two hours in transmission. In one case a move was made here in London, despatched to Brooklyn, and the answer received back all in the space of sixty seconds, which, of course, includes the time which the American player took to con-

sider over his move and write down his message on the proper form. Play closed at 11:30 P.M., with about thirty-five moves recorded on each board."

Into the office of each of the great London dailies messages from every part of the world pour all night, so that in the morning it may give an outline of the great events that have taken place all over the world for the preceding twenty-four hours. Concur-



LORD TENNYSON.

From a photograph by Messrs. Elliot & Fry.

rently with the extension of facilities for collecting news printing machinery has been perfected and paper cheapened and the number of readers enlarged by the advance of education.

Now that publication has become so easy, vast quantities of ephemeral books are published, and perhaps the writers are in too great a hurry to give us their very best. At any rate the literature towards the end of

the reign is not of such excellence as that at the beginning.

It may be interesting to make a short comparison between the two. In 1837 Lord Tennyson, unquestionably the greatest poet of our time, had already published "The May Queen," and that most finished of his works "The Lotos-Eaters," and he was preparing a volume that includes many poems already become



ROBERT BROWNING.

classic, "Morte d'Arthur," "Dora," "Locksley Hall," "The Vision of Sin," and "Break, Break, Break". These were all written sixty years ago, yet it seems but yesterday since he gave us that exquisite song in "The Foresters," "To Sleep! To Sleep! The long bright day is done!" Robert Browning, Matthew Arnold, Mr. Swinburne, Mr. William Morris and others have written beautiful verses, but not on the same level.

In 1837 Thomas Carlyle published his *French Revo-*

lution, perhaps his best book when all is said and done. He had been obliged to write it twice, for, lending the manuscript of the first book to John Stuart Mill, it was accidentally burned. Carlyle was above all things a



Thomas Carlyle (Chidna, 1865)

By permission of Messrs. Chapman & Hall.

moralist, and with a copious flow of vigorous language adjured his generation not to speak but work. *Laborare est orare*, "to labour is to pray" was his grand doctrine.

It was taken up by John Ruskin and preached in a sweeter accent. Mr. Ruskin began as an art critic, and

a champion of modern landscape painters, especially Turner. He had a fine taste and flowing style and wielded great influence in his prime, an influence that, as far as his personal teaching goes has long been waning. But he did great service by disseminating principles that had been much neglected.

Early Victorian Englishmen had many great qualities but among them was not numbered a very keen sense



CHARLES DICKENS.

of the beautiful. Mr. Ruskin, Mr. Pater, Mr. D. Gabriel Rossetti, and others were the fount from which the so-called "æsthetes" drew their inspiration, and the movement has left its mark on dress and furniture which never again have been quite so ugly as they were in the days of the Great Exhibition.

Another book, a very different one from the *French Revolution*, was published in 1837. It was the *Pickwick*

Papers by Charles Dickens, who had so far only published his *Sketches by Boz*. The author became a popular favourite at once, and still holds a high place in the esteem of many readers. He will always interest the student of manners by his vivid pictures of odd bits in the life of his time. Mr. Pickwick's excursions on the stage-coach with old Weller as coachman, the scenes in the Fleet, poor Oliver the parish orphan "asking for



WILLIAM MAKEPEACE THACKERAY.

By permission of Messrs. Smith, Elder & Co.

more," Dotheboys School-scenes—such as these are the material of history.

Soon afterwards followed his great rival Thackeray with *Vanity Fair* and *Philip*, and *Henry Esmond* and the rest. Thackeray chose his characters from a gentleman world, and brought them before the reader with all the resources of a clever, cultivated, rather cynical mind, and naturally he found his readers in a class of

society which did not much care for the broad fun, the cheerfulness-at-any-price, the too-tearful pathos of Dickens.

Of those that come later we shall mention only two, R. L. Stevenson who died in his prime at Samoa after writing a number of stories that deserve reading for the English in which they are written; and the veteran Mr. Meredith whose difficult style has prevented him from being read as much as he deserves.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

THE SCIENTIFIC WRITING OF THE PERIOD.

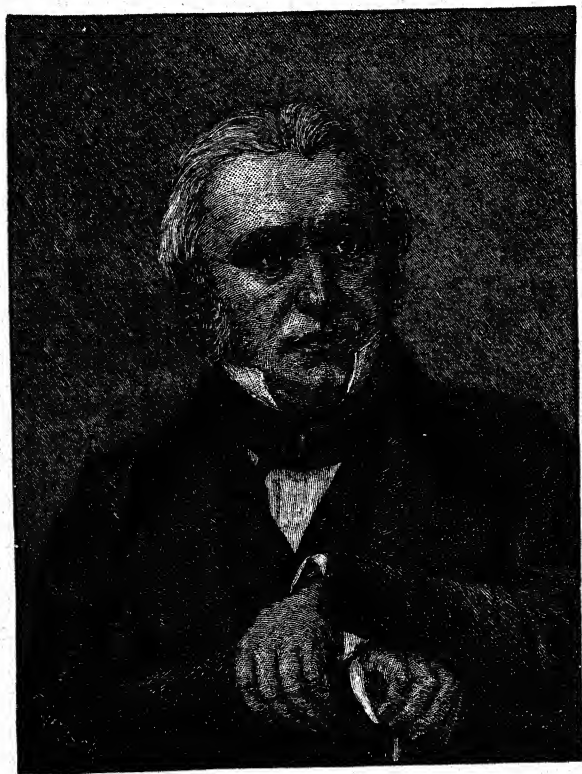
HISTORY may be said to stand midway between science and pure literature. In the hands of Lord Macaulay, a brilliant essayist and poet as well as historian, it inclines to the latter. Both Carlyle and Macaulay owed a lesson to Scott, who had shown in his romances that the human nature of the past must have been what it is in the present, and had successfully tried to represent such figures as Richard Cœur de Lion, James I., Queen Mary and Queen Elizabeth as natural human beings.

Lord Macaulay had a vivid imagination, and no one has given more life-like figures of the past. At the beginning of the reign he was the best known writer in England. He died in 1859.

In a somewhat different manner Mr. Froude pursued the same ideal, dwelling on the romance of history and trying to reproduce its personages. J. R. Green also belonged to the picturesque school, but his *Short History* is chiefly remarkable for its tracing of literary and popular influences.

On the other hand arose a school of historians, chief among whom was Mr. Freeman, who rather despised mere attractiveness and endeavoured to apply the methods of science to history and was laborious in

the collection of fact, the study of old manuscripts, the examination of charters and other authentic documents.



THOMAS BABINGTON MACAULAY.

After a photograph by Claudet.

Others too numerous to mention have done excellent work in this branch of knowledge. Broadly speaking, the tendency of to-day is to give more attention to the

people in the past, and less to the action of military leaders and princes.

The greatest work of the Victorian age has been done in science pure and simple. In this the central figure was Charles Darwin, born in 1803, died 1884. It was in 1869 that he published his famous work, *The Origin of Species by means of Natural Selection*. The root-idea of his theory had been in existence before,



CHARLES DARWIN.

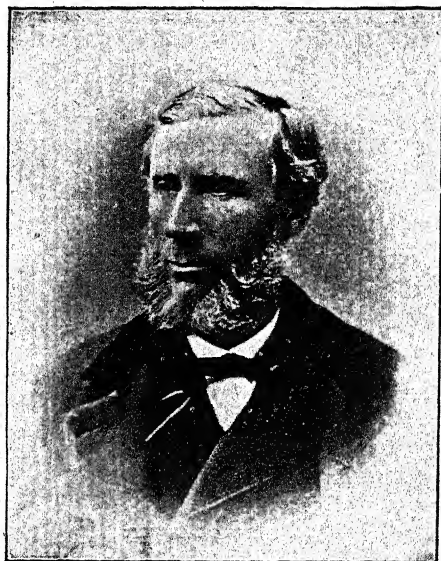
[Photo. London Stereosc. Co.]

but to him is the honour of having stated it clearly and with a wealth of illustration drawn from years of studious investigation and the most patient experiments.

Previously the general notion had been that not only animals, vegetables and minerals, but even the different species were separated by hard and fast lines, and that one had no connection with the other. Darwin, on the

contrary, showed that they were all linked together, and that a process of evolution could be traced from the simplest form of life to the highest.

Two other great names stand out in the history of their time. Both Professor Huxley and Professor Tyndall were profound students of science, and they fought



PROFESSOR TYNDALL.

[Photo. London Stereosc. Co.

for the acceptance of evolution on lecturing platforms and in the pages of magazines. There is a host of less prominent writers in the same field ; but Darwin and Spencer, Tyndall and Huxley, are the names most closely associated with what we may call the scientific revolution.



PROFESSOR HUXLEY.

[Photo. Deneulain.

We must not forget that every important invention has called forth a literature of its own. One library has grown up round railways, another about steamships and guns. Electricity as a motive power is still young, but already a good-sized book-case might be filled with volumes on it. Innumerable books have also been written about zoology, botany, chemistry and other sciences.

But their multitude is not the most important feature: this is the vast difference there is between them and the old text-books. The advance made will be apparent to any one who takes up a scientific work of the first half of the century and compares it with one on the same subject published within the last few years.

Here as elsewhere the world, after going on very quietly for centuries, has as it were quickened its pace, and discovery has followed discovery so quickly that a book in some cases is out of date almost as soon as it leaves the press.

It would take many volumes to give even a brief outline of the advance made in all departments of knowledge; the most we can do here is but to indicate a few of the jutting peaks and mountain tops in the hope that the reader will find his curiosity sufficiently aroused to make him explore the country for himself; for it is a great thing to know what accomplishment and what progress have been made by the men of your own generation.

Ample facilities for consulting or reading books have been provided by a series of Public Libraries Acts, the first of which dates from 1850. A Free Library is to be found now in almost every town of consequence. For students there is the British Museum, than which there is only one larger library in the world. It possesses 1,850,000 books and they stand on 39 miles of shelves.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

THE GROWTH OF KINDNESS.

WE have already seen that in the first half of the nineteenth century the generation of Englishmen was as vigorous and enterprising as any known of in history. But they had still much to learn in the way of humanity and refinement, and their progress in this direction is one of the most satisfactory features of the Queen's reign.

To some extent this has been due to the admirable example set by the royal family. People are always inclined to follow the fashions set by the great. And sovereigns have not always recognised this responsibility.

The Queen's two immediate predecessors, William IV. and George IV., were not good models for the young men of their time, but from the very first her influence has all been exerted on the side of goodness and virtue. We have already spoken of the purity of her court, and the true womanliness, the motherliness of her character; at present it is enough to mention her general kindness of disposition. Who has not heard of her homely pet animals, her dogs and donkeys and ponies? "He prayeth best who loveth best" sang a poet who was dead before she came to the throne.

There were many unloving things done in the second

quarter of the century. For example there was such an exhibition as had not been witnessed in England since the lion-baiting scenes in the Tower during the reign of James I. The *Times*, *Morning Herald* and *Morning Chronicle* of the time describe at great length, though with expressions of disgust and repugnance, an entertainment got up at Warwick by the owner of a menagerie. It was the spectacle of baiting lions with dogs—a horrible pastime that we regret to say attracted not only crowds of men but well-dressed women.

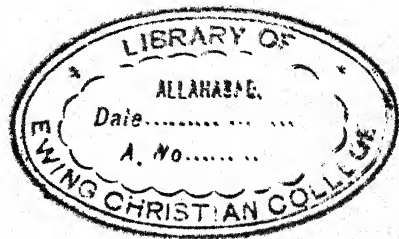
That was in 1825, but public opinion was very much roused, and from that time onwards there is to be noted a gradual increase of the consideration due to the lower animals. Bull-baiting, badger-drawing, cock-fighting, rat-killing and dog-fighting may not yet be quite extinct diversions, but they are now pursued in secret and only by a few. No self-respecting person would care to be present when they were going on.

Reference has already been made to the fact that sixty years ago and less the dog was still used in this country as a beast of burden, and the dog altogether has a happier time now than he used to have. He is not allowed to fight—unless he does so without law or leave, as dogs will; he is not harnessed to a cart. If misused, he has the protection of the law for preventing cruelty to animals, and should he stray from his owner, there is a dog's home to which the kindly policeman will carry him and where, if die he must, he comes to his end painlessly in the death chamber. Equally with the dog, cats, horses and other domestic animals share in the greater kindness of present-day law.

Birds are quite as well cared for. It is recognised by the Wild Birds' Protection Acts that creatures which fly about in the open air are common property, and are

not to be destroyed or put to unnecessary pain at the will of any individual. Several societies are in existence, either for the purpose of guarding birds from destruction, or for teaching the young to love and cherish them. Many books have been written to explain how kindness may be best displayed towards them in winter and other seasons when they are in need of human care.

Kindness to dumb animals is a duty to be recognised and inculcated. If they are pets and companions, as dogs or cats are, then they should be cared for as one would care say for a child that could not talk; if they are used as servants, as horses and donkeys are, then ordinary gratitude dictates kindly treatment; if they are destined for human food, as in the case of sheep or cattle, the least we can do is to see that the killing is done with as little pain and as quickly as possible.



CHAPTER XL.

CHANGES IN DRESS.

THERE are few things more changeable than fashion, and it would be a weary task to follow all its whims and caprices for sixty years. We may find it interesting, however, to trace in broad lines the revival of taste. Our grandfathers and grandmothers in early Victorian days had crude ideas of dress. Ladies especially, with poke bonnets lying like horizontal funnels on the top of the head, and bunched out petticoats, seemed bent on concealing rather than displaying the natural grace of the human figure. They were very dowdy-looking creatures compared to *their* great-grandmothers of the eighteenth century, who dressed beautifully.

Nor were the men better than the women. They had not yet learned to cut their hair properly, and seemed afraid to let it grow long, as the handsome cavaliers had done. It was clipped and made to hang down to the cheek, and what was called in *Punch* the great moustache movement had not yet begun. When coaching ended, so did that admirable hat the serviceable beaver, that not only looked well, but wore well, and was especially adapted to withstand all kinds of weather. In its place came the stove-pipe hat or chimney-pot—a head covering that has become harder and glassier, but is every whit as ugly as ever it was.

Then there was the dear old coat—the cutaway with brass buttons—still to be seen occasionally on the back of some aged and feeble villager. Excellent stuff must have been used, since the coats have in some instances lasted several generations. The curious shape is still



LADY IN CRINOLINE.

preserved in that of our evening dress coat, but the brass buttons now-a-days suggest poverty and old age. It was not so in 1837 when this garment was that of all but a few dandies who had taken to the single-

breasted frock-coat. But most of all did the exquisite glory in the many colours of his waistcoat and trousers.

The poor had less money to spend on dress than they have now and were simple in their tastes. Most of the town operatives, as well as the rustics, had their "cutaway," but it was almost universal for the field labourer to wear a smock. Only of recent years has this



CHIGNON.

garment practically disappeared. In 1857 everybody on a farm—often the farmer himself—wore a smock. At a ploughing match or other gathering for work it was always worn. This was before modern machinery came into use, when bands of reapers cut the corn with their sickles, and when the machine for thrashing it was driven either by water or a gin-horse.

Even rich men had not learned the propriety of adjusting their dress to suit their occupation. Sportsmen, for instance, went shooting in their tall hats, trousers, pointed shoes and dress coats, though the sporting jacket had been invented and was worn by a



MISS A. BLOOMER.

few. Even cricket, which was just coming into vogue, was played in the same dress; it was a long time before any one thought of inventing caps and shoes and flannels for cricket, or knickerbockers for shooting.

The very mention of knickerbockers suggests many a keen controversy and change of fashion. As far as

men are concerned the question is well-nigh settled. The golfer, the cyclist and the shooter find them so convenient that trousers have been long discarded in their favour, and they are so handsome, as well as comfortable, that they are not unlikely to lead men of fashion back to the knee-breeches and buckled shoes of last century.

Undoubtedly too they have excited the envy of women, and the reign has been remarkable for many attempts on the part of feminine dress reformers to abolish the distinction between the sexes. One of the most notable occurred in 1851 when the Great Exhibition was open. We cannot wonder at it for the petticoats had got bunchier and bunchier till a woman looked like a walking balloon with a funnel crowned head surmounting it.

The reaction was first expressed 'by Amelia Bloomer an American lady who edited the *Lily*, a monthly journal devoted to temperance and literature. She created a great sensation by adopting for herself and advocating for others a complete reform in female dress. She had a strong objection to petticoats, for which she wished to substitute a skirt that reached to the knee and underneath it a pair of trousers "moderately full, in fair mild weather coming down to the ankle—not instep—and then gathered in with an elastic band".

The novelty of the idea appeared to strike the people very much and for a time "bloomerism" was all the rage. Lectures were delivered not only in London but in the large provincial towns, and crowds came to hear them and see the group of trousered ladies who usually accompanied the lecturer on the platform.

Possibly enough the fashion might have been adopted

if it had come from Paris, for it was pretty enough, but the ladies would not take their cue from America, especially after the wits of the time began to laugh at the trousers. Nearly every London theatre had a little bloomer farce, where either men or women wore the garb, and Leech lost no chance of poking fun at it in *Punch*. He pictured women in the ugliest bloomer costumes in every variety of male occupation, from driving an omnibus upwards, and the women shrank from ridicule. If their hearts secretly inclined to bloomerism they dared not say so, and the fad died a natural death. It did not even modify the prevalent craze for the balloon-like petticoats, which continued for many years to bulge.

We look at old pictures of women in crinolines and wonder how anybody could wear such an absurd dress. In the fashion journals of the time may be read articles in praise of it, and the poorest girl would have been ashamed to be seen with her lower garments falling naturally about her legs and not expanded on a hoop of cane.

Satirists cracked their jokes in vain at the crinoline. Reform in dress was largely due to two persons, one of whom taught by precept, and the other by practice. Mr. Ruskin had a great influence with the women of England, and they listened with attention when he devoted his eloquence to demonstrating the beauty of simplicity and the wasteful folly with which material was lavished without producing additional elegance. He looked on the human figure with an artist's eye, and inveighed against everything that tended to give it an appearance of deformity.

Mr. Ruskin might have preached in vain if the leader of fashionable society at the time had not recognised

that women's dress was ridiculous. The Princess of Wales was not a philosopher like Mr. Ruskin, but she had exquisite taste and an elegant figure, combined with a sweetness of disposition that won all hearts from the outset. Gladly was her example followed when from the wide-expanding crinoline she turned to an almost clinging habit that clothed a woman without spoiling her natural shape.

It was a return to common-sense. Since then women have allowed fashion to lead them a dance through many idle and some painful follies. They have worn earrings, chignons, and bustles and tight stays and high-heeled boots, and they have thought it beautiful to go about with dead birds on their heads, but these traces of barbarian times are gradually disappearing.

CHAPTER XLI.

THE DEATH OF QUEEN VICTORIA.

IT may be said that the nineteenth century and the Victorian era ended together. The year 1900 had opened with great trouble in England. In South Africa we had become engaged in a war with the Transvaal, and at first our generals were not successful. The Boers had invested Ladysmith and Kimberley, and every morning newspapers were unfolded with anxiety, lest the half-starved garrisons should have been overpowered. General Methuen did not seem able to reach the latter, or Sir Redvers Buller the former. All the European countries appeared to sympathise with our enemies, and a great sadness and depression fell upon those who had lost friends or relatives in the prolonged struggle.

At this crisis in our national history the aged Queen displayed great courage and energy, showing herself to her people, full of sympathy with the bereaved, and of her own choice visiting Ireland where signs of disaffection were very apparent. She had private sorrows of her own to bear—her life never had been without them—but they were unselfishly laid aside while she comforted the sufferers, and spoke words of hope and encouragement to the brave men who returned wounded or invalided from the front. Her reward was to see General Roberts break through the apparently invulnerable defence of the Boers and hoist the Union Jack in Bloemfontein and Pretoria. Her physicians knew, but the country was wisely kept in ignorance of the fact,

*

that the strain was too much for her years, and they felt great anxiety towards the end of 1900. Yet she was afflicted with no painful disease, and her mind kept bright and clear, so that the end came at last with a painful shock. On the 14th January, 1901, she received a visit from Lord Roberts, whom she had been first to welcome home, and on the next day she took her usual drive. It proved to be her last. On Wednesday, the 16th January, she was confined to the house, and gradually becoming worse, died peacefully and painlessly on the 22nd.

So ended one of the greatest eras in English history. The Queen's personal life was one of mingled joy and grief. She could look back on a sunny girlhood, a time when, as wife to Prince Albert, her days were almost unclouded, and if she had to endure many sorrowful years as widow, she had the solace of enjoying the love of her numerous descendants, the affectionate devotion of her subjects and the respect of all the world. Her old age, in Shakespeare's phrase, was "frosty but kindly," marked by ripe wisdom and a loving sympathy that her own afflictions have only enlarged and purified. We find in her none of the bitterness usually associated with old age.

The scenes at the funeral showed the great love and respect in which Queen Victoria was held. Her death took place at Osborne in the Isle of Wight, and on 1st February the body was conveyed across the Solent in the Royal Yacht *Alberta*. In addition to our own large fleet, nearly all the great sea Powers were represented by warships, and as the little vessel threaded its way between them to Portsmouth, guns were discharged to salute the dead. Next day was a very memorable one. It was set apart throughout the country as a day of mourning. Shops were shut and

nearly all the citizens were clothed in black. In London a great multitude assembled to watch the sad but splendid procession from Victoria Station to Paddington. The coffin was borne on a gun carriage drawn by eight white horses, favourites of the late Queen, and among the chief mourners were King Edward VII., the Emperor of Germany, the King of the Hellenes, the King of Portugal, and many other representatives of the Royal Families of Europe. As escort there were regiments of the line, militia and volunteers, while all along the route stretched two black lines of crowded, silent, sad spectators. From Paddington the journey was continued to Windsor, it having been a long-expressed wish of the Queen that her remains should be placed beside those of her deceased husband at Frogmore.

King Edward the Seventh, who was known so long as the Prince of Wales, when on the death of his mother he was proclaimed "with one consent of voice and tongue," stepped into an inheritance made greater by her tenure of it. In doing so he had the good wishes of all men, and the first messages he sent to his subjects were marked by the same kindness and tact that have distinguished hers, so that grief for the dead was alleviated by a well-grounded hope that he too would prove a wise and good sovereign, and a successor not unworthy of her who had gone before.

CHAPTER XLII.

CONCLUSION.

THE greatest value of history consists in the fact that experience of the past is our best guide to conduct in the future. Now that we have briefly reviewed the great events and movements and discoveries of the longest recorded reign, it may be well to pause and ask what practical lessons are to be carried away from it. In what way does it add to wisdom?

The answer is two-fold. It applies to the reader first as an individual and secondly as a member of the community at large. To those who are beginning life and just entering into and feeling its great trials and difficulties, the reign teems with heartening and instructive models; for it is in large measure a history of obstacles overcome by courage and perseverance. Many of the most brilliant and famous men of the period were hampered in early youth by the two great drawbacks to success—poverty and ignorance. We have seen for instance that David Livingstone at ten began work as “piecer” in a cotton mill. But he set his mind on achieving an object and he succeeded, not because he was by any means the cleverest or anything like the cleverest lad of his day, not from being pushed and helped on by friends, but because he relied on himself and made all else subservient to his resolution to carry out his plans. If he had thrown away his time and money in the idle pleasures of the time then he would never have been an African discoverer. He

denied himself present gratification for the sake of ultimate success. And it may be remembered the Queen herself did the same thing. But for the steady care she gave to her lessons as a child she could not have been the wise and good ruler we know. Whether you be prince or cotton-spinner, be sure of this, that what you sow in youth will be harvested in age.

George Stephenson again started in the humblest rank and died full of riches and honour. The ease and happiness of his later days were fruits of the energy and frugality of his childhood. We cannot all be Livingstones and Stephensons, and not always is labour so splendidly rewarded. Misfortune sometimes lies in wait for the most deserving, but surely it is best to strive after the highest, and so in case of failure to have at least that one reward not even bad luck can destroy—the approbation of a good conscience. “ ’Tis not in mortals to command success, but we’ll do more, Sempronius, we’ll deserve it.”

If you happen to fail, do not lose heart, but remember Benjamin Disraeli, when the House of Commons laughed at him, vowing a time would come when they would listen, and above all remember he brought that time about, not by bewailing their want of attention, but by self-training and study. He made himself worth listening to.

When you are men and come to be citizens one thing this history will impress on your mind. Never forsake a cause or an object merely because it has few supporters; never forsake it at all unless some one convinces you of its being wrong. All the greatest and best changes of this century were begun either by one man or by a small knot of men, and were at first greeted with mockery and laughter, or neglected altogether. The great majority for long scoffed at the idea of

locomotive engines; even officials in the Post Office and clever men outside of it thought Sir Rowland Hill crazy for proposing a penny post; years elapsed before Cobden and Bright could win the support of any considerable number of people for their Free Trade principles. The moral is for each to support not what he thinks to be popular but what he believes to be right.

And the last lesson is the greatest of all. No one who reads history to any purpose can fail to be proud of the noble part played in it by our country. Small mistakes have occurred and were inevitable in the guidance of such a large empire, but do not let them blot out the memory of what is great and noble. The banner of England has carried freedom and just laws to every country above which it floats. If war has sometimes had to go before, it has invariably been followed by peace, bearing increased comfort and security. And to those dark races of the East, so rude and weak and ignorant that they had been subject and behindhand since history came to be written, England has been a stalwart and kindly guardian, not crushing taxes out of them as was the way with ancient empires, but teaching them her own arts of peace and war, and preparing them for greater trade and a wider destiny.

We have been able to achieve these things because in times of trial and difficulty Englishmen have temporarily forgotten small party feuds and stood shoulder to shoulder confronting the common enemy. In the end this cause has almost invariably turned out to be the cause of mercy and truth and peace, and if this is to continue to be so in the future it will be because the new generation are as united and resolute as their forefathers were in the cause of truth. To be patriotic, to love your country, that is a duty you owe England for what she has done in the past.

WHAT HAVE I DONE?

What have I done for you,
 England, my England?
 What is there I would not do,
 England, my own?
 With your glorious eyes austere,
 As the Lord were walking near,
 Whispering terrible things and dear
 As the Song on your bugles blown,
 England—
 Round the world on your bugles blown!

When shall the watchful sun,
 England, my England,
 Match the master-work you've done,
 England, my own?
 When shall he rejoice again
 Such a breed of mighty men
 As comes forward, one to ten,
 To the Song on your bugles blown,
 England—
 Down the years on your bugles blown?

* * * * *

Mother of Ships whose might,
 England, my England,
 Is the fierce old Sea's delight,
 England, my own,
 Chosen daughter of the Lord,
 Spouse-in-chief of the ancient sword,
 There's the menace of the Word
 In the Song on your bugles blown,
 England—
 Out of heaven on your bugles blown!

W. E. HENLEY.

(By permission.)

APPENDIX.

TABLE I.

THE EXPANSION OF COMMERCE.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE COMPARES THE GROWTH OF BRITISH COMMERCE WITH THAT OF FOUR OTHER COUNTRIES.

AGGREGATE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.

| COUNTRY. | 1840. | 1850. | 1860. | 1870. | 1880. | 1889. |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| Great Britain ... | 114,000,000 | 169,000,000 | 375,000,000 | 547,000,000 | 698,000,000 | 740,000,000 |
| France ... | 66,000,000 | 95,000,000 | 167,000,000 | 227,000,000 | 339,000,000 | 311,000,000 |
| Germany ... | 52,000,000 | 70,000,000 | 130,000,000 | 212,000,000 | 294,000,000 | 367,000,000 |
| Russia ... | 33,000,000 | 40,000,000 | 48,000,000 | 103,000,000 | 131,000,000 | 118,000,000 |
| United States ... | 41,000,000 | 62,000,000 | 136,000,000 | 165,000,000 | 308,000,000 | 320,000,000 |
| The aggregate for the world was ... | 573,000,000 | 832,000,000 | 1,489,000,000 | 2,191,000,000 | 3,033,000,000 | 3,377,000,000 |

TABLE II.

PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN ENGLAND.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS HOW HOUSEHOLD ARTICLES HAVE FALLEN IN PRICE DURING THE LAST THIRTY YEARS.

| | 1867-77. | 1878-87. | 1885-1894. | 1893. | 1894. |
|------------------------------|----------|----------|------------|-------|-------|
| Wheat, English | 54½ | 40 | 30½ | 26¼ | 22-11 |
| " American | 56 | 43½ | 33½ | 27-6 | 23-6 |
| Flour, town made white ... | 46 | 34½ | 28 | 26 | 22 |
| Potatoes, good English ... | 117 | 102 | 77 | 65 | 70 |
| Rice, Rangoon cargoes ... | 10 | 8 | 6½ | 6-2 | 5-10 |
| Beef, prime (by the carcase) | 59 | 55½ | 47½ | 48 | 47 |
| Butter, finest | 125 | 116 | 103 | 106 | 98 |
| Sugar, West Indian refining | 23 | 17 | 13¼ | 14¼ | 11¼ |
| " best | 24 | 18 | 13½ | 15 | 11¼ |
| Tea, average import price | 17¼ | 12¾ | 10¼ | 9-74 | 9-66 |
| Cotton | 9 | 6 | 5½ | 4½ | 3½ |
| Wool, Merino, average fleece | 21¼ | 18½ | 15 | 12¾ | 11¾ |
| Petroleum, refined | 12½ | 6½ | 5½ | 4 | 3½ |

TABLE III.
THE STEAM-SHIP.
THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS APPROXIMATELY THE MERCHANT STEAM-NAVIES OF THE WORLD
AT VARIOUS DATES.

| NOMINAL TONNAGE OF STEAMERS. | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|---------|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | 1840. | 1850. | 1860. | 1870. | 1880. | 1888. |
| British | 95,000 | 188,000 | 502,000 | 1,203,000 | 3,105,000 | 4,355,000 |
| American | 198,000 | 481,000 | 870,000 | 1,075,000 | 1,211,000 | 1,765,000 |
| French | 10,000 | 27,000 | 84,000 | 170,000 | 278,000 | 510,000 |
| German | 10,000 | 20,000 | 50,000 | 82,000 | 216,000 | 503,000 |
| Russian | 10,000 | 20,000 | 40,000 | 70,000 | 100,000 | 142,000 |
| Austrian | 10,000 | 20,000 | 30,000 | 50,000 | 60,000 | 90,000 |
| Italian | 10,000 | 15,000 | 20,000 | 35,000 | 77,000 | 175,000 |
| Spanish | 5,000 | 10,000 | 13,000 | 45,000 | 230,000 | 395,000 |
| Scandinavian | 5,000 | 10,000 | 25,000 | 88,000 | 190,000 | 355,000 |
| Dutch | 5,000 | 10,000 | 20,000 | 30,000 | 65,000 | 105,000 |
| Various | 10,000 | 20,000 | 60,000 | 190,000 | 350,000 | 645,000 |
| Total | 368,000 | 821,000 | 1,714,000 | 3,038,000 | 5,882,000 | 9,040,000 |

TABLE IV.

RAILWAYS.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS THE DEVELOPMENT OF RAILWAYS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

| YEAR. | MILEAGE. | COST. | RECEIPTS. | EXPENSES. | PASSENGERS CARRIED. |
|----------|----------|-----------------|----------------|------------|------------------------|
| 1843 ... | 1,950 | £ 65,500,000 | £ 5,450,000 | £ ... | ... |
| 1846 ... | 3,040 | 126,300,000 | 7,570,000 | ... | 43,800,000 |
| 1850 ... | 6,620 | 240,300,000 | 13,200,000 | ... | 72,900,000 |
| 1855 ... | 8,280 | 297,600,000 | 21,500,000 | 10,300,000 | 118,600,000 |
| 1860 ... | 10,430 | 348,100,000 | 27,800,000 | 13,200,000 | 163,500,000 |
| 1870 ... | 15,540 | 529,900,000 | 43,400,000 | 21,700,000 | 330,200,000 |
| 1880 ... | 17,930 | 728,300,000 | 63,000,000 | 33,600,000 | 603,900,000 |
| 1888 ... | 19,810 | 804,700,000 | 72,900,000 | 37,800,000 | 742,500,000 |

TABLE V.

THE WORLD'S SHIPPING.

THE FOLLOWING FIGURES, EXTRACTED FROM LLOYD'S REGISTER, SHOW THE VESSELS OWNED BY THE GREATER NATIONS IN 1895-6, AND ALSO BY THE WORLD. IT WILL BE SEEN THAT MORE THAN HALF OF THE ENTIRE NAVIGATION IS CONDUCTED UNDER THE BRITISH FLAG.

| FLAG. | STREAMERS. | | SAILING VESSELS. | | TOTAL. | |
|----------------------|------------|------------|------------------|-----------|--------|------------|
| | NUMBER | NET TONS. | NUMBER | NET TONS. | NUMBER | NET TONS. |
| British { | 6,446 | 9,695,976 | 2,781 | 2,421,981 | 9,227 | 12,117,957 |
| United Kingdom | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Colonies | 874 | 542,025 | 1,435 | 582,657 | 2,309 | 1,124,682 |
| Total | 7,320 | 10,238,001 | 4,216 | 3,004,638 | 11,536 | 13,242,639 |
| America, U.S. | 626 | 920,672 | 2,594 | 1,244,081 | 3,220 | 2,164,753 |
| French | 571 | 903,105 | 593 | 191,647 | 1,164 | 1,094,752 |
| German | 953 | 1,343,357 | 777 | 543,455 | 1,730 | 1,866,812 |
| Norwegian | 586 | 446,384 | 2,455 | 1,212,628 | 3,041 | 1,659,012 |
| The world's shipping | 13,256 | 16,887,971 | 17,112 | 8,219,661 | 30,368 | 25,107,632 |

TABLE VI.

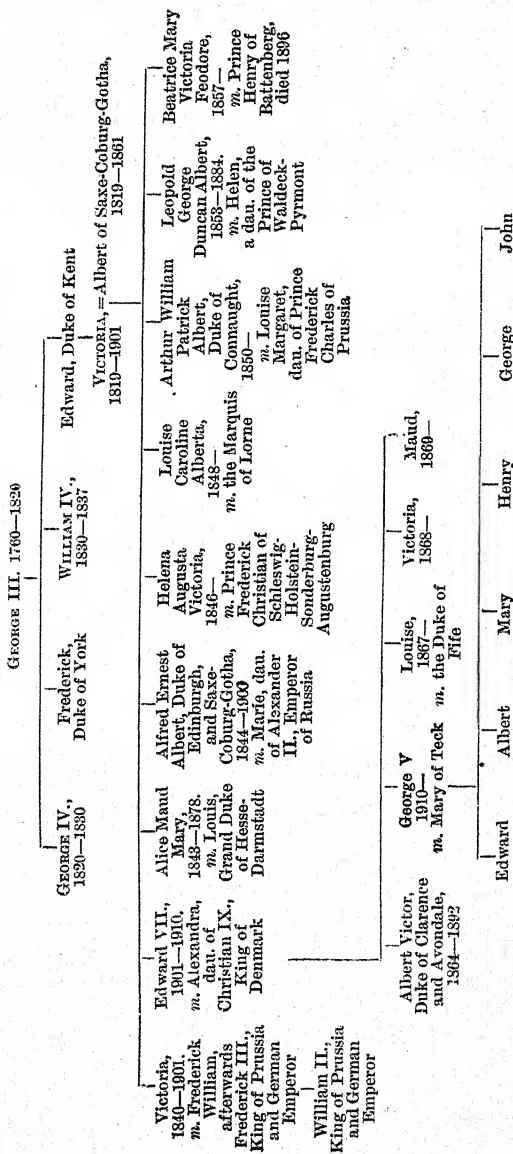
EXPANSION OF THE EMPIRE.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS THE GROWTH IN THE CHIEF COLONIES BETWEEN 1840 AND 1895.

| | 1840. | | | 1895. | | |
|--|------------------|------------|------------|------------------|-------------|-------------|
| | POPULA- TION. | COMMERCE | REVENUE. | POPULA- TION. | COMMERCE | REVENUE. |
| Canada, including Newfoundland | 1,690,000 | 6,200,000 | 500,000 | 5,225,000 | 48,660,000 | 7,307,000 |
| Australasia | 200,000 | 3,200,000 | 600,000 | 4,238,000 | 114,837,800 | 28,571,000 |
| South Africa | 140,000 | 1,000,000 | 200,000 | 2,349,000 | 39,771,235 | 6,452,000 |
| West Indies (Returns for 1850) | 900,000 | 9,000,000 | 700,000 | 1,500,000 | 11,896,550 | 1,844,000 |
| Other Colonies, excluding Malta, Gibraltar, and Hong Kong ... | 2,170,000 | 7,700,000 | 400,000 | 6,000,000 | 63,870,263 | 4,192,000 |
| India (the mean between 1830 and 1850) | 5,100,000 | 27,100,000 | 2,400,000 | 19,312,000 | 279,035,848 | 48,363,000 |
| | 107,000,000 | 21,950,000 | 22,300,000 | 287,000,000 | 204,909,865 | 95,187,000 |
| Total | 112,100,000 | 49,050,000 | 24,700,000 | 306,312,000 | 483,945,713 | 143,553,000 |

NOTES.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE. CHAPTER I.



- Prince Regent.** Afterwards George IV.
- Farmer George.** As King George III. was commonly called from his simple tastes and homely manners.
- Saxe-Coburg.** A small German State.
- In-clem'-ent.** Cold and raw.
- Con-tem'-por-a-ry.** Living at the same time. Sir Walter Scott died in the year 1832.
- Ab-ne-ga'-tion.** Self-denial; keeping one's self in the background.
- St. James's Palace.** A royal residence in London.
- A-bate'-ment.** Lessening.

CHAPTER II.

- Di'-a-ry.** A book in which a person writes down the daily events of his life.
- George IV.** Reigned from 1820-30; was succeeded by his brother William IV. who died 1837.
- Re-spon-si-bil'-i-ty.** A heavy sense of duty or obligation.
- Mal-vern.** A pretty town in Worcestershire.
- Tunbridge Wells.** An inland watering-place in Kent.
- Broadstairs.** A sea-side resort in Kent.
- Brighton.** A sea-side resort in Sussex.
- Tours.** Journeys.
- Euston.** The London terminus of the North-Western Railway Co.
- Pan-o-ra'-ma.** A series of scenes passing before the eye.
- Land'-scape.** View; general appearance of the country.
- Route.** The road; the course of the journey.
- Ac-qui-si'-tion.** The gaining of.
- In-firm'-i-ty.** Weakness.
- Em-bar-rass-ment.** Difficulty; perplexity.
- Waterloo dinner.** To commemorate the victory of Waterloo (1815).
- Apsley House.** The London residence of the Duke of Wellington, the hero of Waterloo.
- Au'-di-ence.** A hearing; an interview.
- Privy Council.** The advisers of the sovereign.
- Al-le'-giance.** An oath of fidelity.
- Mr. Greville.** Clerk to the Council; the author of *Memoirs* that give a most interesting account of matters relating to the royal family and politics.

CHAPTER III.

- Af-fec'-tion-ate.** Loving.
- Ca-lam'-i-ty.** Sudden trouble or distress.
- Disputed succession.** More than one claiming the throne.
- Co-ro-na'-tion.** The Queen was crowned 28th June, 1837.
- Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.** A small State in South Germany.
- Sir Robert Peel.** At that time Prime Minister.
- Et'-i-quette.** The rules that govern good manners or breeding.
- Duchess of Gloucester.** Aunt to the Queen.
- Lord Tennyson.** 1809-92, the Poet Laureate for the greater part of the reign.
- Friv'-o-lous.** Not having a due sense of responsibility.
- Indus'-tri-al de-vel'-op-ment.** The developing of manufactures, industries and trades.
- Burns.** A Scotchman; one of our finest poets; born 1759 died 1796.
- International Exhibition.** The first attempt to have in one exhibit the arts, manufactures, and products of all countries. It has been followed by many others in this and in other countries.
- Hyde Park.** A large public park in London; the buildings were removed and erected under the name of the Crystal Palace.
- Consti-tu-tion'-al ruler.** One who rules according to the wishes of his people.
- Lord Melbourne.** Was Prime Minister at the beginning of the reign.

CHAPTER IV.

An-noy'-ances. Things that worry but are not of serious importance.

In-fat'-u-a-ted. Extremely foolish, without judgment or sense.

Ri-dic'-u-lous. To be laughed at.

Windsor Castle. The chief royal residence.

Triv'-i-al. Slight, of no importance.

Weak in'-tel-lect. With small brain power.

Chapel Royal. A famous church in London in which most of the Royal marriages of recent years have been solemnised.

Constitution Hill. In the west end of London.

In-ter-ces'-sion. Prayer, request.

Trans-por-ta'-tion. In those days people who committed certain crimes were sent out of the country or transported to Australia or Tasmania.

Buckingham Palace. A royal residence in London.

Lu'-na-tic. A madman.

Nau'-se-a. Sickness.

Te-na'-ci-ty. Strong hold of.

Symp'-toms. Signs.

Aus-tere'. Stern, without pleasures.

Crown Prince. The eldest son of the Kings of Prussia.

Con-spic'-u-ous. Prominent, standing out prominently.

Pa'-thos. Intense sadness.

Heir ap-par'-ent. Next heir to the throne.

Sandringham. The Prince of Wales' home in Norfolk.

CHAPTER V.

An-ni-ver'-sa-ry. Returning year by year.

Hesse-Darmstadt. A small German State.

Diph-the'-ri-a. A disease that attacks the throat.

Be-nev'-o-lence. Kindness to others.

In-trin'-sic. Of real or inward worth as distinguished from mere outward value.

In-tel-lect'-u-al pur-suits. Taking pleasure in books, art, music and all that is noblest and best.

Prince Henry of Battenberg. Went with a British expedition to

the west coast of Africa when he caught fever and died shortly after at sea.

Dowager Empress. The mother of the present, and wife of the late Emperor.

Albert and George. Sons of the Prince of Wales, they were sent on a cruise round the world on H.M.S. *Bacchante*.

Paston Letters. A collection of letters written by the members of a Norfolk family, named Paston; they throw great light upon social and other questions during the troublous times of the Wars of the Roses.

CHAPTER VI.

Sub-urb'-an. The outskirts or all the parts of greater London lying round the city or centre.

Deptford and Greenwich. Suburbs lying along the south bank of the Thames and a few miles nearer to the sea than the "city".

Means of transit. The different ways by which passengers and goods can be carried from one place to another.

Beefeaters. Guards dressed in the costume of the middle ages, only attendant at places belonging to the Crown.

Nav'-vies. The labourers who do the heavy work.

Sur-vey'-ors. Men who survey or examine the country through which the railway is to pass, with a view to finding the best route.

En'-gin-eers'. Men who see to the actual building of the railway, the bridges, tunnels, etc.

Super-sede'. To take the place of.

Shrewsbury. In Shropshire.

Holyhead. In the Island of Anglesea, the starting place for Ireland.

Edinburgh. The capital of Scotland.

Aberdeen. An important university town on the east coast of Scotland and further north than Edinburgh.

Aldgate. In London.

Birmingham. A large town in the Midlands, England.

The Three Nuns. An inn.

In-ter-me'-di-ate. In between, of lesser importance.

King's Cross. The London terminus of the Great Northern Railway.

The Granite City. Aberdeen, built mainly of granite, a very hard stone.

Fore boot. A kind of cupboard in the outside front of the coach for the stowing away of small parcels, etc.

Tar-paul'-in. A waterproof covering.

Game baskets. Containing game such as pheasants, partridges, hares, etc.

In-ge'-ni-ous-ly. Cleverly.

Steam lo-co-mo'-tion. The haulage of carriages, etc., by steam power.

Newcastle. A large town in the North of England, on the river Tyne.

CHAPTER VII.

Oil-cake. Food in the form of flat cakes made of crushed cotton seeds or linseed.

Tilted. With a round tent-like cover or tilt.

A duty. A tax to the Government.

Li'-cens-ed. Allowed by law.

Belgium. A small country on the continent of Europe, near to England.

Cos'-ter-mon-ger. A man who hawks fruit and vegetables from house to house.

North Road. The road from London to York.

Mag'-nate. Some one of great importance.

Post boy. The boy or man who rode one of the horses that drew the vehicle.

Ost'-ler. The man whose duty was to attend to the horses.

Pe-des'-tri-an. A traveller on foot.

Bristol. A seaport in the west of England.

Hull. A seaport in the north-east of England.

Liverpool. A seaport in the north-west of England.

Southampton. A seaport in the south of England.

Gross increase. Without reckoning losses by emigration, etc.

Em'-i-grant. One who leaves his country to find a home in another.

William Cobbett. A writer on social questions.

Smock. A long garment worn as an over-all.

Holkham. Near Wells-next-Sea.

Kite. A bird of prey.

Mag'-pie. A large bird, black and white in colour, seen only in out-of-the-way places.

Thatch. Straw covering of a cottage roof.

CHAPTER VIII.

Stockton-on-Tees. A town in the county of Durham on the river Tees.

Trafalgar. Nelson's great victory over the French and Spanish, 1805.

Waterloo. Wellington's great victory over the French, 1815.

Darlington. About sixteen miles west of Stockton.

Ard'-u-ous. Difficult and long drawn-out.

In-ad'-e-quate. Not nearly sufficient.

Di-rect'-ors. The men who manage the affairs of a company.

Pro-ject'-ors. Those who first planned the affair.

Fox-covers. Places thickly grown over with bushes, etc., where foxes like to lie for safety.

Engine wright. The man who worked and tended an engine.

Vis-ion-ary. A man who imagines things that do not exist or cannot be accomplished.

Su-per-sed'-ing. Taking the place of.

Raft'-ers. The wooden beams that support the roof.

Taplow. A delightful spot on the banks of the river Thames.

School fees. Probably only two or three pence per week.

Gin-horse. Gin is a contraction of engine. Hence a gin-horse supplied the power to work a machine of some kind such as a thrashing machine on a farm, etc.

Mech'-an-ism. The construction or the manner in which the various parts are put together.

Hexham. A small country town a few miles north of Newcastle-on-Tyne.

CHAPTER IX.

Lu'-di-crous spec'-ta-cle. A sight to be laughed at.

Inclined planes. Ground sloping evenly.

Pro-pri'-e-tors. Owners.

Rainhill. A town in south Lancashire, about midway between Liverpool and Manchester.

Con'tro-ver-sy. A dispute or argument.

Manchester and Liverpool line. A distance of about thirty miles.

De-mon-strat-ed. Showed so clearly as not to admit of any doubt.

Spec'-ta'-tors. The on-lookers.

Secretary of State. One of the Cabinet Ministers.

M.P. Member of Parliament.

South-Western. The London and South-Western Railway, which, as its name implies, runs through the south-western part of England.

In-cent'-ive. Inducement. Reason for pushing on quickly.

In-ad'-e-quate. Not sufficient.

Rugby. Almost in the centre of the Midland part of England.

Denbigh. In North Wales.

London and Birmingham line. A distance of about 120 miles, the principal station on the way being Rugby.

Game preserves. Land upon which pheasants, partridges, hares, etc., are carefully protected.

Poach'-er. One who steals game from preserved country.

Cap'-it-al-ists. Those who supplied the money.

Toll-keepers. In those days a charge was made upon all vehicles passing along the roads. A toll-house and a gate across the road were to be found at certain distances apart, and toll-keepers collected the payments.

Private bill. Introduced by a private member and not by the Government.

Pre-lim'-in-ary ex-pens'-es. Money spent before real work on the railway could be begun.

Derby. The chief town in Derbyshire. Distant about fifty miles from Birmingham.

Sheffield and Rotherham. Towns in south of Yorkshire, about six miles apart.

Chester and Crewe. Towns in the north-west of England about thirty miles apart.

Birkenhead. A town about fourteen miles north of Chester.

Maryport and Carlisle. Towns in Cumberland about thirty miles apart.

CHAPTER X.

Pam'-phlet. A small book consisting of one or more sheets stitched together.

Rev-o-lu'-tion. A most thorough change.

Lake district. In Cumberland.

Ap-par'-ent re-luct'-ance. Seem-
ing unwillingness.

Trans-mit'-ting. Sending from
place to place.

A-bol'-ish-ed. Quite done away
with.

Postmaster-General. A mem-
ber of the Government who is in
charge of the Post Office.

Sydney Smith. A wit and
brilliant writer of the time.

San'-guine. Very hopeful.

Prompt'-i-tude. Quickness of des-
patch.

Stim'-u-la-ted. Aroused and en-
couraged.

Em'-u-late. To strive to equal or
excel.

Punc-tu-al'-i-ty. Up to exact
time.

Quad'-ru-pled. Multiplied by four.

Fi-nan'-cial. Relating to money.

CHAPTER XI.

Pho'-no-graph. An instrument
that will store up and reproduce
speech.

Phe-nom'-e-non. Something that
excites wonder but the cause of which
is difficult to find out.

Disc. The face of a round plate.

Sem'-a-phore. A contrivance for
sending signals, still in use in the
immediate neighbourhood of railway
stations.

Leg'-is-la-tive bar'-ri-ers. Laws
of the land that forbade the passage
through the streets of vehicles pro-
pelled by steam, electricity, etc.

Brighton. On the south coast, about
fifty miles from London.

Motor cars. Not drawn by horses,
etc., but propelled by use of steam,
electricity, etc.

Euston and Camden Town.
Railway stations in the north of
London.

Paddington. The London terminus
of the Great Western Railway.

Slough. About twenty miles west
of Paddington.

Sub-ma-rine'. Under the sea.

Egypt. A country in North Africa,
distance from London about 2500
miles.

Bombay. A city in Western India,
distance from London about 6000
miles.

China. A country in East of Asia;
Hong Kong, a British settlement, an
island off the coast, is about 10,000
miles from London.

Australia. An island continent
belonging to England; Melbourne
its chief city is about 11,000 miles
from London.

Moor of Rannoch. In the High-
lands of Scotland.

CHAPTER XII.

Nav-iga'-tion. The art of sailing
ships from port to port.

Bristol. A seaport in the west of
England.

Pi-o-neer'. One that goes before to
prepare the way.

Cork. A seaport in the south of Ire-
land.

Re-mote' an-tiq'-ui-ty. Ancient
days.

Helenburgh. A town on the
river Clyde a few miles further down
the river than Glasgow.

Holyhead. A seaport in the Island
of Anglesea, about 250 miles from
Glasgow.

Cunard line. Still one of the
greatest shipping companies in the
world.

Halifax. The chief town in Nova
Scotia.

Britannic. Still (1897) running
regularly between Liverpool and New
York.

Lucania and Campania. The
finest ships of the Cunard fleet
(1897).

Adelaide. The capital of South
Australia, about 11,000 miles from
London.

Alexandria. A seaport in Egypt.

CHAPTER XIII.

- Peas'-ant.** A labourer in the fields.
- Net'-tle.** A green plant that has stinging leaves.
- Eighteenth century.** From 1700 to 1800 A.D.
- Bounty System.** Payments made by Government to the importers of certain articles.
- Import duty.** A tax on articles coming into the country. Both systems tend to encourage native production but finally raise the price to the consumer.
- Re-bell'-ion.** A rising against the Government.
- Landed interest.** The owners and occupiers of land and therefore keenly interested in the price of wheat.
- The commercial.** Interested in trade, manufactures, etc., who thought it was to their interests that people should have cheap food.
- Cotswold Hills.** In Gloucestershire.
- Rus'-tic.** The countryman.
- Lord Tennyson.** Born 1809 died 1892.
- Pre-pon'-der-a-ting.** Of the greatest number and importance.
- Su'-prem'-a-cy.** The chief power.
- Reform.** The wider and better representation of the people in the House of Commons.
- Free Trade.** The importation of goods free of duties or taxes.
- The Corn Laws.** These fixed the duties to be paid on corn brought into the United Kingdom from other countries.

CHAPTER XIV.

- Pro-tec'-tive tar'-iffs.** Taxes or duties on goods entering a country; imposed either for purposes of raising revenue or for protecting native industries.
- Mill op'-er-a-tives.** Workers in the mills. In Lancashire the mills are mostly employed in spinning and weaving cotton.
- Fac'-tor-ies.** Buildings in which things are made or manufactured.
- Ban'-quets.** Feasts, public dinners.
- In-ter-view'-ed.** Met and talked to.
- Anti-Corn-Law League.** *Anti* = against or contrary to.
- Chartists.** A political body composed of men who were dissatisfied with the Government, so called from the *Charter* or paper in which they stated the reforms they wished for.
- Com'-pro-mise.** A coming together, both parties conceding something and so coming at last to an agreement.
- Yeo'-man.** A farmer cultivating his own land.
- El'-o-quence.** The art of fine speaking.
- En-thu'-si-asm.** Intense interest.
- Ca-lam'-i-ties.** Misfortunes, dreadful events that could scarcely be prevented.
- Sub-sist'-ence.** Means of living.
- Col'-leagues.** His fellow ministers.
- Bane.** Enemy, curse.
- Osborne.** A royal residence in the Isle of Wight.

CHAPTER XV.

- Pro-vin'-cial towns.** Towns outside London or in the provinces.
- Whigs.** In those days the Whig was the Liberal party. The word is now but little used. Liberals and Radicals have taken the place.
- Squires.** The country gentlemen who owned and lived upon the land.
- Maid'-stone.** A town in the county of Kent.
- Lu'-di-crous.** Causing laughter.
- Dan'-dy.** One who wastes time upon dress.
- Pan-ta-loons'.** Trousers.
- Ges-tic'-u-la-ted.** Moved body, arms and legs to give force to what he was saying.
- Con-serv'-a-tive.** Now generally used instead of Tory.
- Dissolved Parliament.** So as to give the electors an opportunity of expressing their wishes.

CHAPTER XVI.

Es-sen'tials. Things really necessary.

Be-nef'i-cent. Good and kindly.

Con-spir-a-cy. An attempt to overthrow the Government by unlawful means.

Ark'-wright. Invented a cotton spinning machine to be worked by water power, about the year 1770.

Ex-pend'-it-ure. Money spent.

Re-bell'-ion. A rising against the Government.

CHAPTER XVII.

Mer'-chants. Those who sell goods to the retailers.

Com-mun'-i-ty. In this case the word means all the people of the country.

The cable. The telegraph cable under the sea.

Canada. The English colony in the north of North America.

Argentina. A country in South America.

Russia. A country in Eastern Europe.

Sur'-plus. Over and above what is needed.

U'-ni-form. All alike.

Tin'-der box. A box that held materials for striking a light, such as touch-paper, etc.

Touch-paper. Paper soaked in a chemical to make it inflammable.

Late poet laureate. Lord Tennyson. The present (1897) is Mr. Alfred Austin.

CHAPTER XVIII.

Rook. A large black bird that nests high up in the trees and feeds mainly on seeds.

Satch'-el. A small bag.

Har'-row-ing. A harrow is a flat implement full of sharp teeth which break up the surface of the ground.

Farnham. A town in Surrey.

Com-mis'-sion-er. Some one appointed with a special mission to make inquiries.

Con-tract'-ed. Made an agreement.

Dis-si-pa'tion. Drunkenness.

East Anglia. The counties of Norfolk, Suffolk and Essex.

St. Helens. A mining town in Lancashire.

Middle ages. Say the twelfth to the fifteenth centuries.

Punch. The best known of the English comic papers.

Leech. A famous artist who drew many pictures for Punch.

Bru-tal'-i-ty. Cruelty.

CHAPTER XIX.

Squal'-id. Dirty and wretched.

At-tract'-ive. Pleasing to the eye.

San'-i-ta-ry in-spect'-or. Whose duty it is to see to the healthful conditions of houses, etc.

Cess'-pool. Into which waste matter from the house was drained.

Pol-lu'-tion. Dirt and filth that made it unfit for drinking.

Pitch'-er. Earthenware jug.

Stag'-nant. Lifeless. Water standing still and so becoming foul.

Ham'-let. A small village.

Spir'-al. Twisting round and round upon a central line.

Leg-is-la'-tion. The making of new and better laws.

CHAPTER XX.

- Gi-gan'tic.** Enormous. Very large indeed.
Cey-lon'. A large island lying to the south of India and belonging to England.
Gen-teel' so-ci'e-ty. Well-to-do people of good manners and breeding.
E-con'o-my. Methods of saving or sparing.
Min'ni-kin. Very small.
De-lect-ed. Found out, seen.
Ma-li'-cious. Spiteful.
Con-sump'tion. Being consumed or used.
Jamaica. An island in the West Indies, belonging to England.
Re-fin'-er-ies. Factories in which the coarse sugar was turned into finer kinds.
Greenock. A seaport on the river Clyde in Scotland.
Im'pet-us. Help to push on quickly.

CHAPTER XXI.

- Navigation Act.** This had been in existence for about 200 years and its object was to prevent foreign ships trading with English ports.
Or'-gan-isms. The smaller kinds of living creatures.
Re-frig'-er-a-ting. Keeping very cold.
River Plate. A large country through which the river Plate flows.
Cool'-ies. Indian labourers.
Lake Winnipeg. In Canada.
Chicago. In the United States.
California. In the west of the United States.
Danish. The people of Denmark, a country in Northern Europe.
Norman. From Normandy, a part of the north of France.
Sweden. A country in Northern Europe.
Tasmania. An island lying to the south of Australia and belonging to England.
Algeria. A part of North Africa.
Florida. In the south-east of the United States.
Sub-sti-tutes. That took the place of.
En-er-get'-ic. Full of life and energy.
Re-cruits'. Young soldiers.
Peninsular War. Lasted from 1808 to 1814, and in the end the English under Wellington drove the French out of Spain and Portugal (the Peninsula).
In-tel-lect'-u-al. Having great power of thought.

CHAPTER XXII.

- Phy-si'-cians.** The doctors.
Gil Blas. A famous Spanish story, written by Le Sage.
Henry Fielding. Often spoken of as the father of English novelists (1707-54).
In-cal'-cu-la-ble. So great that it cannot be counted.
An-æs-thes'-i-a. Without pain.
Chlo'-ro-form. A liquid that takes away from the body all sense of feeling.
Am-pu-ta'-tion. Cutting off a limb.
Hu-mane'. tender-hearted.
Tort'-ure. Excessive pain.
In-flam-ma'-tion. Heat and swelling of any part of the body.
Pu-tre-fac'-tion. Becoming rotten or putrid.
Anti-sep'-tic. Preventing putrefaction.

CHAPTER XXIII.

- Norwich.** The chief city in the county of Norfolk.
- Vienna.** The capital of Austria.
- Erup-tion.** A breaking out.
- Pen'e-tra-ting.** Piercing their way through.
- Hos-pit-al.** A house for the nursing and medical treatment of the sick or wounded.
- Fract'-ure.** A break.
- Dis-lo-ca'tion.** Put out of joint.
- Mi'-crobe.** An exceedingly small form of animal life, that causes disease.
- Chol'-er-a.** A disease common in very hot climates.
- Poet of the reign.** Lord Tennyson.
- In-fal'-li-bly.** Without fail.
- Pes'-ti-lence.** Disease.
- Es-sen'-tial.** Something absolutely necessary.
- Sew'-age.** The waste matters of a house.
- Re-cre-a'-tion.** Exercise taken in the open air.
- In-fec'-tious.** Caught by one person from another.
- I'-so-la-ted.** Kept apart.
- Sane.** Sensible.

CHAPTER XXIV.

- Ob'-so-lete.** Quite out of date, no longer in use.
- Ad'-mir-al-ty.** The Government Department that has charge of the Navy.
- Syria.** To the north of Palestine.
- Bom-bard'-ment.** Knocking down the forts, walls, etc., by firing heavy shot and shell at them.
- Acre.** A town in Syria.
- Slave-dhows.** Fast-sailing ships employed in the slave-trade.
- Stokes Bay.** Just outside Portsmouth Harbour.
- Crimean War.** England, France and Turkey against Russia in the years 1854-56.
- Sebastopol.** A town in the Crimea (Russia).
- Whitworth and Armstrong.** Are still the most famous makers of English cannon.
- Se-ces'-sion.** A breaking away from.
- Con-fed'-er-ates.** The southern side, the northern were called Federals.
- Tur'-ret.** A tower containing heavy guns.

CHAPTER XXV.

- Au-to-mat'-ic-al-ly.** Acting of itself without any direct human aid.
- Motive power.** Force that propels or pushes forward.
- Fiume.** A sea-port in the south of Austria.
- Di-am'-e-ter.** Distance through.
- In-ge-nu'-ity.** Cleverness and curiousness of construction.
- Igni'-ting.** Setting on fire.
- De'-to-na-tor.** Something that will produce fire when struck.
- Ma-rine'.** Of or belonging to the sea.
- Ap-pa-ra'-tus.** The instrument or machinery.
- Hard a-port.** Sharply to the left.
- The quarter.** The part of a ship near the stern.
- Nav'-al ma-nœu'-vres.** Practising for time of war on the part of our fleets, just as soldiers are taught by means of sham fights, etc.

CHAPTER XXVI.

- Fort-i-fi-ca'-tions.** Buildings, earth-works, etc., put up for purposes of defence.
- Con-scrip'-tion.** A system by which, with very few exceptions, every man has to be trained for a soldier.

Vol-un-ta-ry enlistment. Men become soldiers of their own choice just as others become labourers, etc., etc.

Re-serves'. Men who have been trained as soldiers and receive payment on condition that they rejoin the army whenever called on by the Government.

Mi-li'-tia. Soldiers for a few weeks only every year.

Vol-un-teers'. Men who are trained as soldiers in their spare time and partly at their own expense; available for home defence.

Reg'u-lars. Men who enter the army as a profession and belong to it for a term of years.

Broad'-side. All the guns on one side of a ship fired at the same time.

Spanish Armada. The great fleet that came to invade England in the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

Su-prem'-a-cy. Ahead of all others.

Con'-ning Tower. A tower on the deck of a ship from which the officers can see what is going on around them.

Tac-tics. Movements of the ships.

Nelson, Hardy, Collingwood. Three famous British admirals at the beginning of the nineteenth century.

Zan'-zi-bar. An island off the east coast of Africa.

U-surp'-er. One who forcibly takes the place of another.

Al-ex-an'-dri-a. A famous city in Egypt, on the coast.

CHAPTER XXVII.

Crimean War. 1854-56 (see note to chapter XXIV.).

In-sur'-gent. Rebel.

Al'-lies. Those who agree to help each other in war, etc.

Skir'-mish-es. Fights in which only a few men were engaged on both sides.

Coomassie. The capital of Ashantee.

Ul-ti-ma'-tum. The last word to be said before fighting began.

Con'-voy of sup'-plies. A body of soldiers whose duty it was to protect the horses, carts, etc., that were bringing supplies.

Am-mu-ni'-tion. Powder and shot, etc.

Gal'-lant. Very brave.

Fu'-gi-tives. Those who had saved their lives by flight.

Bar'-ri-cade. An erection that bars the way.

Prince Louis Napoleon. Only son of the late Emperor of France.

Cairo. The capital of Egypt.

Porte. The Government of Turkey.

Khedive (pron. Kedeeve). The native ruler of Egypt.

Tel-el-kebir. Between Ismailia, a port on the Suez Canal, and Cairo.

Sou-dan'. The southern provinces of Egypt.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

Col'-on-ies. Settlements in other countries, but belonging to the mother country, e.g., New Zealand.

Re-ten'-tion. Keeping.

Ap-pre'-ci-ate. Assess at its proper value.

Con'-victs. Men sentenced to long terms of imprisonment.

De-pict'. Picture, describe clearly.

Victoria. A colony in the south-east of Australia.

Plymouth. A seaport in the south-west of England.

Pastoral en'-ter-prise. The keeping of herds of cattle and flocks of sheep.

Cen'-sus. A numbering of the people of a country every ten years.

CHAPTER XXIX.

Swarth'-y. Having dark skins.

Brah'-mins. The best educated of the people of India, belonging to the priestly or highest caste.

Im'-ple-ment. A tool or instrument of labour, *e.g.*, a spade, rake, etc.

Win'-now-ing. Separating the grain from the husks.

Pest-le and Mor'-tar. The mortar is a round bowl that contains the seeds, the pestle is a tool for crushing them.

Ap-prox-i-ma'-tion. Approach to.

Pal-an-quin'. A light carriage without wheels carried by men.

Stal'-wart. Strong, well-built.

Con-tin'-u-ous-ly. Without ceasing.

Al-lot'-ments. Small patches of land let out to the villagers for cultivation.

Mort'-gaged. (Silent *t*), borrowed money, giving the land as security, if the money is not repaid the money-lender takes the land.

Gi-gan'-tic. Of enormous size.

CHAPTER XXX.

Na'-bob. A name given to Englishmen who made fortunes in India.

Af'-ghan borders. In the north-west of India.

Pun'-jab. The north-western part of India.

Il-lit'-er-ate. Not educated.

O'-gre. A man-eating monster of fairy tales.

Arabian Nights. A famous Eastern book.

Ra'-nis. Wives.

Pyre. The pile of wood, etc., upon which the body was placed.

Ru-pee'. A coin nominally worth two shillings but really only a little more than one.

CHAPTER XXXI.

Elizabeth. Reigned from 1558-1603.

A-mal'-gam-a-ted. Joined together, made into one.

Suez Canal. Joins the Mediterranean with the Red Sea and so with the Indian Ocean.

The Cape. The Cape of Good Hope in South Africa.

Madras. A city on the east coast of India.

Tank. An artificial lake for irrigation or bathing purposes.

Oust'-ed. Turned out and taken the place of.

A'-gra (pron. Ah'-gra), **Del'-hi**, **Al'-la-ha-bad**, **Ben-ar'-es**, **Lucknow'.** All cities in Northern India.

CHAPTER XXXII.

Good Queen Bess. Elizabeth (1558-1603).

A-chieve'-ments. Things actually done or performed.

Se-bas'-to-pol. A strongly fortified town in the Crimea.

Cri-me'-a. A peninsula in south of Russia.

Charge of the Light Brigade.

One of the most heroic of all the great deeds of British soldiers; a regiment of light cavalry charged a

Russian army and out of 673 men 247 were killed or wounded.

Com-mis-sa'-ri-at. The department which has to supply the army with food, clothing, etc.

Martin Chuzzlewit. A novel by Charles Dickens, two of the characters Sairey Gamp and Betsy Prig are nurses and the author describes them with a view to showing up the ignorance of nurses of his day.

Front'-ier. The part of a country that lies next to another.

Czar. Of Russia.

Con-spir'-a-tors. Men who plot to overthrow the Government.

Cawn'-pore. A town in Northern India.

Se'-poys. Native Indian soldiers in the pay of the British.

Em'-bas-sy. A mission to treat with a foreign ruler.

Per'-ma-nent en'-voy. To live in the country and look after British interests.

Ka'-bul (pron. Kar'-bool). The chief town in Afghanistan.

Her'-at. A town in the north-west of Afghanistan.

Kan-da-har'. A town to the south of Kabul.

Bur'-mah. A country lying to the east of India.

Hindu Kush. High mountains.

Viceroy of India. The head of the British Government in India.

In-surg'-ents. Rebels.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

Holy Land. Palestine the land of Canaan.

Moors. A warlike people who lived in Spain and in the north of Africa.

Cob'-le. A small fishing boat.

Khar-toum'. A town upon the river Nile, in Upper Egypt.

Shang'-hai. An important seaport on the coast of China.

Eff'-icien-cy. Able to do their work properly.

Cen'-sur-ed. Officially blamed.

Sou-dan' tribes. The people who live in the Soudan, as the provinces of Upper Egypt are often called.

Med-i-ta'-tion. Deep thought.

King Leopold. Of Belgium.

Con'-go. A great river that rises in Central Africa and flows into the Atlantic.

Gar'-ri-sons. The soldiers who lived in to defend the forts and towns.

Lan'-ark-shire. In the south-west of Scotland.

Horace and Virgil. Latin poets.

West'-min-ster Ab'-bey. A grand old church in London. To be buried there is perhaps the greatest honour that can be paid to dead Englishmen.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

"A pocket borough." So called because the few voters were controlled by one wealthy man, who really decided who should represent the borough.

"Stump oratory." The art of making pleasing political speeches.

A-dult'. Over twenty-one years of age.

Re'-dis-tri-bu-tion of seats. Taking members from small boroughs and giving them to larger ones, etc., etc.

Com'-pen-sate. To make up to by money payment or otherwise.

Re-dress'. To put things right, to do away with wrongs.

Co-er'-cion bill. That tends to take away the liberty of the people.

Tri-bun'-al. A court of law.

Ju-di'-cial. Fixed or settled by law.

Ad-min-is-tra'-tion. The party that governs the country for the time, the Government.

Kil-main'-ham Gaol. In Dublin

Irish agitation. In favour of Home Rule.

General election. When all the members are elected at about the same time.

Lord Beaconsfield. Died 19th April, 1881.

Mer'-can-tile ma-rine'. Our vast fleet of ships engaged in commerce.

Do-mes'-tic re-form'. Improvement of things at home.

Im-per'-i-al-ism. Extension of the empire abroad.

CHAPTER XXXV.

Em-i-gra'tion. Leaving one's native land to settle in a foreign country.

Im-port-ed. Brought into a country.

Raw imports. Articles brought into a country to be manufactured, e.g., raw wool from Australia is made into many kinds of cloth, etc., in England.

Revenue. Money raised to pay for the cost of Government, the army, the navy, etc.

Ex-pan-sion. Spreading out.

Tay. A river in the east of Scotland.

Dun-dee'. A large town on the Firth of Tay.

Forth. A river in the east of Scotland, south of the Tay.

Queens'-ferry. On the southern shores of the Firth of Forth, a few miles west of Edinburgh.

Cy-lin'-dri-cal. Shaped like a cylinder or a roller having parallel and equal circles for its ends.

Men'-ai Straits. Between Carnarvon and Anglesey in North Wales.

A'-que-duct. A raised channel for conveying water from one place to another.

Bridgewater Canal. Completed in 1761, in the neighbourhood of Manchester.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

Willis' Rooms. Formerly a favourite hall for lectures, meetings, etc., in the west end of London.

Tour'-ists. People who travel for pleasure.

Battle of Waterloo. 18th June, 1815.

Apsley House. The London residence of the Duke.

Reform Bill. The first, passed in 1832.

Walmer Castle. In Dover.

St. Paul's. Cathedral in the centre of London, a burying place for many naval and military heroes.

Nelson. Lord Nelson who was killed at Trafalgar 1805.

Jo'-vial. Hearty, jolly.

Rail'-ler-y. Fun or chaff.

Do-mes'-tic Re-form'-ers. Those who try to improve the condition of the people generally.

Di-plo'-mat-ist. One who has to treat with and settle disputes that may arise with foreign Governments.

Chan'-cel-lor of the Ex-cheq'-uer. The minister who has charge of the finances.

Mr. Forster. The "father" of the Education Act of 1870, creating School Boards; Irish Secretary during troubled times, his life was constantly threatened by the desperadoes of the Irish party.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

Lit'-er-a-ture. The literature of a country consists of all the good books that have been written by its people.

E'-poch. A period of time.

Paper duty. A tax on the manufacture of paper; cheap books and newspapers were impossible while the duty remained.

Jour'-nals. Daily, weekly, or monthly newspapers.

Cor-re-spond'-ents. Writers sent to the seat of war to report what goes on.

American War. 1861-64.

Franco-Prussian War. 1870-71

Moves. Movements of the chess-men on the board, each move had to

be telegraphed from England to America so that the players in the two countries might know how to move next.

London Dailies. The daily newspapers, e.g., *The Times*, *The Standard*, *The Daily News*, *The Daily Telegraph*, *The Daily Chronicle*, etc.

E'-phem'-er-al. Lasting for only a short time.

Art crit-ic. One who criticises or assesses the value of paintings, etc.

Dis-sem'-in-a-tion. Spreading abroad, sowing the seed.

The Fleet. A prison near Fleet Street, where people were imprisoned for debt.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

Scott. Sir Walter Scott, the writer of so many fine historical romances.
Richard Cœur de Lion. "Richard the Lion Hearted," Richard I., King of England, famous for deeds of valour in the Crusades.
Queen Mary. Of Scotland.
Man'u-scripts. Writings as distinguished from printed matter.
Char-ters. Written promises from the king granting favours to the towns and cities, etc.

Au-then-tic. Genuine, true, that may be relied upon.
Doc'u-ments. Written or printed papers.
Ev-o-lu'-tion. A gradual working forward from one form to another.
Mag-a-zine'. A book published at regular intervals, *e.g.*, weekly, monthly, and containing articles on different kinds of subjects.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

Pre'-de-ces-sors. Those going immediately before.
Re-pug'-nance. Intense dislike, loathing.
War'-wick. A famous castle and town.

Men-ag'-e-rie. A show containing wild beasts.
Bad'-ger. An animal about the size of a fox that burrows in the ground.
Ex-tinct'. Dead, no longer in use or practice.

CHAPTER XL.

Ca-pri'-ces. Sudden changes without any particular reason for them.
Hor-i-zon'-tal. The opposite of vertical or upright, parallel with the horizon.
Cav-a-liers'. Nobles and followers of Charles I.; they were distinguished by gay and handsome dress.
Dan'-dies. Fops.
Ex'-quis-ite. One who devotes most of his time to the study of his dress, a fop, a dandy.

Pro-vin'-cial.—Outside London, in the provinces.
Par'-is. The capital of France; at one time the fashions for ladies' dresses came from Paris.

Leech. A clever draughtsman who could caricature or make funny drawings of the faults of his time, most of his best work appeared in *Punch*.

CHAPTER XLI.

In-vest'-ed. Surrounded and laid siege to.
La'-dy-smith. A town in North Natal where was the chief camp of the British troops. It was besieged for 120 days.
Kim'-ber-ley. A town in the north of Cape Colony, famous for its diamond mines. It was besieged for four months.
Cri'-sis. An important moment.
Dis-af-fec'-tion. Unfriendliness to the ruler, disloyalty.
In'-val-id-ed. Wounded and too ill to do active service.

In-vul'-ner-able. That cannot be broken through.
As-so'-ci-at-ed with. Spoken of as belonging to.
Hel-len'-es. The Greeks; this is what they call themselves in their own language.
Of the line. Regular soldiers.
Frog'-more. Near Windsor.
In-her-it-ance. Something which one receives as *heir* from a dead person.
Ten'-ure. Way in which she held it. (*Lat.* *teneo*, "hold".)
Al-le'-vi-at-ed. Made lighter and easier to bear.

CHAPTER XLII.

Prac'-ti-cal Les-sons. Such as will teach us to act wisely in future.
Com-mu'-ni-ty. A number of people formed into one body, society in general.
Sub-ser'-vi-ent. Devoted to serve a certain purpose.
Ul'-ti-mate. Final, in the end.

Fru-gal'-i-ty. Thrift, economy.
"Tis not in mortals," etc. From Addison's "Cato," Act i., Scene i.
In-ev'-i-ta-ble. Not to be avoided.
Tem'-po-ra-ri-ly. For a time only.
Con-front'-ing. Boldly facing.
Pat-ri-ot'-ic. Loving one's country.